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Teaching
SOCIAL STUDIES
IN ELEMENTARY SCHOOLS

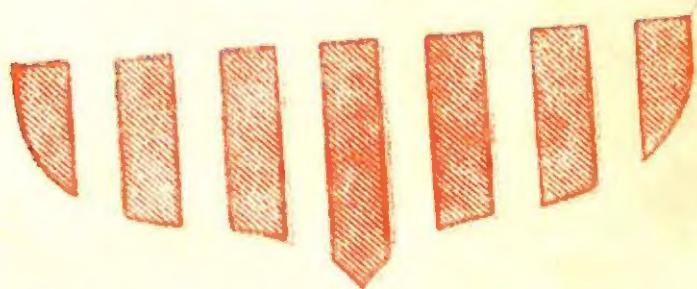
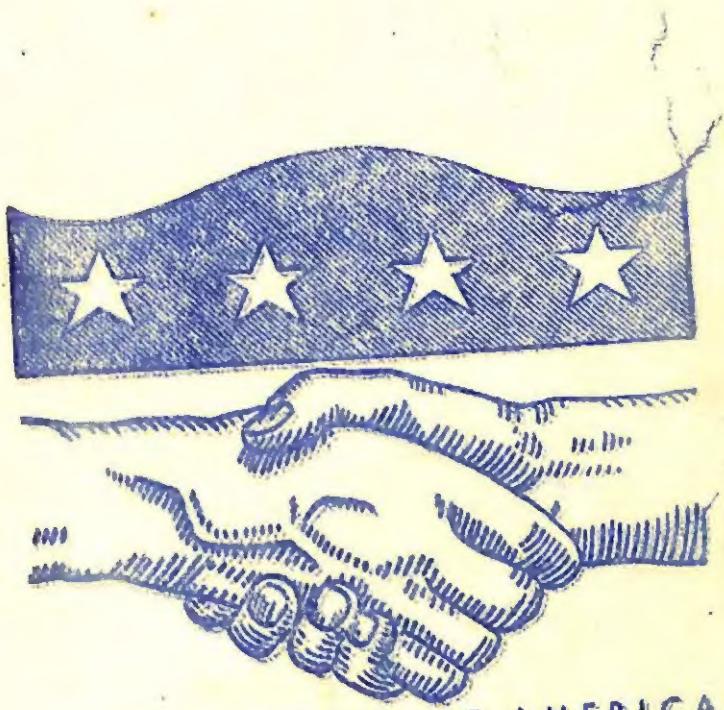


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TEACHING

Social Studies

IN ELEMENTARY SCHOOLS

Revised Edition

EDGAR BRUCE WESLEY

Research Associate, Stanford University
Former Director of Social Studies, University High
School and Professor of Education
UNIVERSITY OF MINNESOTA

With the advice and assistance of

MARY A. ADAMS

Assistant Superintendent, Elementary Schools
BALTIMORE, MARYLAND



1952

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PREFACE



The numerous and rapid developments in elementary social studies (described in detail in Chapter 3) since the Second World War justify this revision, and the generous reception of the first edition enabled the publishers to authorize this second edition. The changes are numerous and extensive, amounting to about 45% of the total composition of the volume. The major changes deserve identification.

1. A complete reorganization of the book.
2. Two completely new chapters: 15, "Permanent Outcomes of the Social Studies," and 16, "Utilizing Methods."
3. With the exception of two brief programs, Chapter 4, "Some Specimen Programs," is new.
4. The section on evaluation has been reorganized and expanded. Chapter 25, "Techniques of Appraisal," is almost wholly new.
5. The new materials in Chapters 1, 3, 5, 14, and 17 equal or exceed 50%.
6. All the other chapters have been revised, some of them quite extensively and fundamentally.
7. Greater stress has been placed upon pupil participation.
8. Many concrete suggestions as to procedures are supplied.
9. A glossary of social studies terms has been added.
10. Several new lists and tables have been included.
11. About a hundred new annotated references have been added.

I renew my acknowledgment of obligations to those who helped to prepare the first edition. In preparing the second edi-

PREFACE

tion I am indebted for criticisms, suggestions, and materials to: Professor Jack Allen, Peabody College for Teachers; Professor Joe A. Apple, San Diego State College; Dr. Chester D. Babcock, Seattle Public Schools; Miss Naomi Chase, University of Minnesota; Miss Evelyn R. Girardin, Baltimore Public Schools; Miss Wilhelmina Hill, United States Office of Education; Mrs. Josephine Jasperson, St. Cloud State Teachers College; Professor Lucien Kinney, Stanford University; Professor Victor C. Krause, Concordia Teachers College; Miss Hazel Olson, University of Wyoming; Professor I. James Quillen, Stanford University; Rev. John C. Ward, Bureau of Education, Archdiocese of St. Paul; Dr. Edith West, University of Minnesota; Mrs. Leona Winner, Garfield School, St. Paul.

My former assistant, Mr. William L. Barnes of Oxnard, California schools, read critically many portions of this revision and made numerous suggestions.

In preparing this revision my critic, adviser, and helper, Miss Mary A. Adams, made detailed and extensive suggestions. She is responsible for some of the most thoroughgoing changes, but she is not accountable for the final product.

My wife, Fay Medford Wesley, participated extensively in the planning and execution of this revision. Her understanding of children and her sensitivity to style are reflected in numerous passages.

Los Altos, California

Edgar B. Wesley

Since the appearance of the first edition some trends in elementary social studies have become clearer and more pronounced. The study of children continues as a major development; pupil participation has become more widespread; the need for including materials on international affairs has become more evident; instructional supplies and equipment are being utilized more fully; evaluation is becoming an integral part of teaching. These and other trends are described in this revision. We believe that it will afford timely and practical help for elementary teachers in dealing with the development of wholesome understandings and skills in human relationships.

Baltimore, Maryland

Mary A. Adams

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Part 1

THE SOCIAL STUDIES IN ELEMENTARY EDUCATION

1. HUMAN RELATIONS AND THE SOCIAL STUDIES

SOCIAL RELATIONSHIPS IN PRACTICE

"The children in my grade get lazier and noisier every year," complained a teacher. "It's my ball and I'm going to be the pitcher; else I'll take the ball and go home," declared Junior. "Supper late as usual, I suppose," growled the husband as he entered the door. "This is my sixth job this year, and in every one the boss has had it in for me," said the new factory worker. "The old field is good for one or two more crops. Let some one else do the worrying then," said the farmer.

These are examples of social situations in which the speakers reveal a degree of social maladjustment or a lack of sensitivity to the implications of what they say. Temperament or health may explain some of the reactions, but failure to understand the nature of human relationships is even more probable.

"The problem of snowballing on the playground is becoming serious. Can we do something about it?" said the teacher to her class. "Let's talk quietly, because my mother is asleep," said Mary to her playmates. "I think this man was next," said the waiting customer. "It may have been my fault, and if so, I beg your pardon," said the motorist. "My country is willing to submit the matter to arbitration," wrote the minister of foreign affairs.

These are examples of social situations in which the speakers reveal a sensitivity to others. Whether or not they are sincere or typical of the persons involved, they do demonstrate a comprehension of human relationships. They show that the speakers, through training or experience, have achieved a degree of social maturity.

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These examples of commendable and undesirable reactions demonstrate the range and variety of social relationships. They disclose nothing about the ability or intelligence of the participants, but they do reveal a great difference in the art of understanding social interaction. This understanding grows out of instruction and practice; it is not an acquisition but a process. Children require extended guidance, and even adults are constantly extending the range and type of their relationships as they meet new situations. For both children and adults, success in the social studies and in social situations is measured by progress in desirable social conduct.

THE CHILD AND HUMAN RELATIONSHIPS

Children acquire rather than inherit a social disposition. The young child is not even aware of the existence of the complicated network of human relationships that comprises society. His early attention is centered on food, exercise, and objects. As he becomes aware of his mother, father, and siblings he slowly recognizes the existence of other persons. Then he begins the long process of learning how to get along in a world of people. His happiness and success depend upon his progress in understanding human relationships.

The child is a child and should be allowed to do childish things. Food, objects, play, and growth come first. As he grows and learns, he becomes aware of his relations to members of his family, to his playmates, and to other groups. He gradually acquires skill and understanding in human relationships. Each new social situation requires new adjustments. The family, the school, the church, and all the varied institutions of society make their contribution to his growth. The typical child grows into a socialized adult. The process is ordinarily so successful that one thinks of man as a socialized animal. As a matter of fact, however, he becomes one only after varied and extensive training and experience. Only if the educative process is successful does he become a socialized animal.

The teacher who undertakes to guide the child in the process of becoming a worthy and cooperative member of society needs to have a clear and complete understanding of the process. Such

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understanding includes a knowledge of child nature and growth and an understanding of the intricate network of relationships that holds society together. Perhaps a description and an analysis of these relationships will provide a helpful basis for formal definitions of the social studies and for a further study of the socializing process.

CATEGORIES OF HUMAN RELATIONSHIPS

Human relationships may be divided into a number of categories. While these categories are indistinct and somewhat overlapping, they do provide a clearer view of the variety and range of human relationships. Four major classes may be designated as those that exist among and between

1. People and People
2. People and Institutions
3. People and Earth
4. People and Goods

I. RELATIONSHIPS AMONG PEOPLE. When one consciously observes another human being he is instantly aware of that person's activity and of the direction of his attention. The observer perceives that the second person is reading, gazing vacantly out the window, intently listening to the radio, or any one of dozens of activities that reveal the direction of his attention, the extent to which he is already occupied. If not completely engrossed, each person is usually ready to establish contact with some other person. If the second person smiles, speaks, or indicates ever so faintly that he is aware of the first, that he is ready or willing to communicate, the first person is likely to open a conversation. Normal persons go about with their social antennas attuned to receive messages. The result is a vast network of human relationships.

Relationships among people vary in nature and extent. When two persons are talking there is some connecting thread, some joint interest that brings them together. This relatively simple relationship of person to person may be friendly or hostile, casual or intimate, brief or prolonged. The first thought of an observer who notices a meeting of two individuals is to wonder what brings them together, what they are talking about, and what will ensue

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as a result of the meeting. The observer's interest is likely to center upon the *relationship* and not upon the individuals.

This person to person relationship manifests itself constantly through the meeting of child and child, teacher and pupil, street-car conductor and passenger, purchaser and seller, neighbor and neighbor, doctor and patient, lawyer and client, and so on through the whole range of human possibilities. In every instance it is the *relationship*, the occasion of the contact, that interests the student of the social studies. So powerful is the influence of this relationship that an individual's mood and attitude varies according to the nature of the relationship. He may be kind and patient with a fellow worker and irate and disagreeable with a salesman. The nature of the relationship affects and often determines his reactions.

Another variation of human relations is that which obtains between an individual and a group. It may be a preacher delivering a sermon, a lawyer pleading with a jury, a candidate persuading the voters, a police squad pursuing a fugitive, a group teasing a lone child, or a dictator addressing his followers. In all such instances one is aware of the network of *relationships* that is being woven between the person and the group. One meets such situations frequently in experience and in the pages of social studies.

Still another variation of people-people relationships is that existing between groups. The Democrats and the Republicans, the United States and Canada, the boys and the girls, the freshmen and the sophomores, the unions and the employers, the Greenville and the Springfield football teams, the Baptists and the Methodists — these are all examples of groups that establish intricate and involved relationships. The study of these groups and their relationships throws light on all kinds of social processes.

The relationships of human beings are not of one kind. The two persons who are conversing may be enemies; the speaker may be trying to deceive and mislead the crowd; the two countries may be at war. The social studies are concerned with conflict as well as cooperation; the field examines and describes, but it does not necessarily pass moral or ethical judgments on the relationships that it studies.

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Relationships between and among people appear in all the social studies subjects. Sociology describes some basic tendencies; history records the story of groups and institutions; geography shows what human cooperation, as well as conflict, has done to the earth; government is a description of one of man's organized methods of achieving social control; and economics describes those activities that cluster around earning a living.

2. PEOPLE AND INSTITUTIONS. Group relationships and activities have led to the organization of a number of social institutions, such as the family, school, church, industry, and state. These institutions provide services, evolve structures, acquire power, and take on a kind of corporate personality. A person's attitude toward a labor union, for example, is unlike his attitude toward a laborer. In the former case he is thinking of an institution; in the latter he is thinking of an individual. Thus institutions, built by and composed of people, are usually regarded as quite impersonal and detached.

The social studies field is concerned with institutions and their effects upon individuals. Sociology undertakes to describe and analyze institutions and their functions. History recounts the major events in the story of our major institutions, with emphasis upon the state, church, school, industry, and agriculture. Thus, institutions, which are man's organized and systematized efforts to promote cooperation for particular purposes, introduce new kinds or levels of relationships. In fact, the relationships among institutions, such as those existing between church and state, constitute some of the most complicated problems for society and also for students of the social studies.

3. PEOPLE AND EARTH. Man's struggle with his environment has led to a mass of relationships between the individual and the earth, and between groups and the earth. Consider how numerous and extensive are an individual's reactions to such phenomena as rainfall, altitude, humidity, temperature, and latitude. Or consider the number of activities that a city carries on with respect to its environment. If it be near a mountain the inhabitants cut the timber, mine the gold, build summer homes, construct roads, lay out a ski trail, and build a reservoir on its side. In turn the mountain provides resources, shuts off the winds, affects

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the rainfall, affords recreation, casts its shadow, and impedes transportation. Similar and other kinds of relationships are established between cities and lakes, plains, valleys, oceans, deserts, and jungles. The relationships are not one-sided. Both man and nature are active and aggressive. The result is that an interesting and varied struggle is constantly going on.

The field of science contributes enormously to an understanding of these human-earth relationships. In the social studies, geography makes a two-fold contribution, by presenting many materials from natural science and by describing man's reactions to the challenge of nature. In so far as geography centers its attention upon man's interactions with the earth it is a social study.

4. PEOPLE AND GOODS. Out of the earth and its resources man has constructed and produced an infinite number of products. Since these goods are desirable and desired they acquire economic value. Their scarcity and desirability give rise to a complicated network of relationships between man and goods and among the people who are concerned with producing the goods. Illustrations are overwhelmingly numerous. The laborer works in a factory; a corporation is formed to secure the capital to produce shoes; a railroad is constructed to transport goods; a man calls on scores of producers in order to build a house. All these economic activities give rise to further complexities in human relationship and interdependence. Labor unions, banks, corporations, cooperative societies, credit unions, relief agencies, and hundreds of other associations and organizations are formed in order to facilitate the relationships that cluster around goods.

Economics is the study that is obviously and wholly devoted to the relationships that exist between people and goods. It is, however, by no means the only social studies subject that is concerned with such relationships. History records man's economic activities; geography describes the resources out of which the goods are produced; and sociology analyzes the institutions that cluster around the production of goods.

HUMAN RELATIONSHIPS AND SOCIAL STUDIES

The foregoing description and analysis provide a basis for understanding the extent and the limits of the social studies field.

HUMAN RELATIONS AND THE SOCIAL STUDIES

It shows that the field is concerned only incidentally with earth facts, with production processes, and with scientific data. Other fields deal directly with these phenomena. The social studies are concerned directly with the web of relationships that develop between and among people, and with those that develop between people and their environment, their institutions, and their organized activities. This analysis provides a basis for the formal definition and description of the social studies field.

THE SOCIAL STUDIES DEFINED

The term *social studies* is used to designate the school subjects which deal with human relationships. In this sense the term is of recent origin. It was relatively unknown in 1916 when a committee of the National Education Association gave it official sanction. The term was given a more assured status in 1921 when the teachers in the social subjects chose the name National Council for the Social Studies for their new organization. Within recent years state syllabi, local courses of study, school schedules, and educational writings have agreed upon the use and meaning of the term *social studies*. It has become the accepted term by which to designate the school subjects which deal with human relationships.

The term *social studies* has given rise to several popular misconceptions. It has been confused with socialism, social service, social reforms, social problems, and social welfare. Some careless newspaper editors and misinformed publicists have charged that the social studies are concerned with reforms, that they are anti-capitalistic, and that they are opposed to American traditions. The use of the word "social" has apparently been the cause of such misconceptions. Perhaps it is unfortunate that a word with such varied connotations was chosen as a part of the name for the field. But the field is concerned with relations and emotions, and the name *social studies* is apt and appropriate, even if it does mislead the careless or confuse the unwary.

As a matter of fact, school people use the term *social studies* with the same objectivity that marks their use of mathematics, science, language, English, art, physical education, or any other field. The term *social studies* implies no particular economic,

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historical, political, or social doctrine. As a term it is as static, as objective, as unemotional as the term *mathematics*.

Within the teaching profession the term *social studies* caused some confusion before its meaning was completely standardized. Some advocates of the fusion of two subjects, such as civics and history, tried to restrict the term to indicate such a union. Others used it to indicate the mass of materials which would be brought together by the removal of all subject boundaries. Still others wanted to use the term to indicate the contemporary social subjects, in other words, the social studies minus history. This use persisted for some years. Students who read certain college catalogues were confronted with such curious terminology as "history and social studies." The mathematical parallel of this would be "algebra and mathematics."

Some expansive and sentimental educators, sensing the social purpose in arithmetic or science or some other subject, declared that all the subjects were social studies. Such use of the term would destroy its special function as a designation of those subjects which deal directly with human relationships. If all subjects are social studies, the term means everything in general and nothing in particular. Fortunately, all these erroneous uses of the term, both within and beyond the profession, are rapidly disappearing. It is well, however, for the social studies teacher to be aware of lingering misconceptions and to have explanations ready for patrons or colleagues who may need them.

Only one serious difference in terminology concerning the social studies remains. A small, recalcitrant group persists in calling the social *studies* the social *sciences*. This practice is a relic of the period prior to the adoption of the term *social studies*. The designation as *sciences* of social materials which are used for instructional purposes is not only a misnomer; it is also unscientific pedagogy, faulty psychology, and a social lag.

THE SOCIAL STUDIES AS A FIELD

In spite of former differences and confusions concerning the use of the phrase *social studies*, its meaning is now clear. The social studies constitute a *field* of study, a *federation* of subjects, an *area* of the curriculum. The area is that which is concerned di-

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rectly with human relationships. The federation is a loose one, involving no denial of the separate identities of geography or history or civics. The field is separated from other fields such as mathematics and science, but within the field itself there are variations in content and purpose.

There is nothing unique in grouping into fields subjects with similar content and purpose. The word *science* indicates such subjects as botany, biology, physical geography, physics, and chemistry. Mathematics includes arithmetic, algebra, geometry, and trigonometry. Literature or English includes grammar, composition, history of literature, and examples of literary writings. Likewise the phrase *social studies* is used to indicate the field of human relationships.

The field of the social studies is a growth rather than a creation. The subjects in this field developed more or less independently of one another. Each was organized because it met a particular need, because it described and explained some aspect of human relationships. Thus civics became a school subject because it describes the forms and explains the processes of government. History became a school subject because it is the diary of humanity, containing the record of man's successes and failures. Geography became a school subject because it makes clear man's relationship to his physical environment. Teachers began to realize that these and other studies were closely related. All deal with human relationships. It was therefore natural for them to find a common designation for subjects with common elements. Thus the term *social studies* became the collective name for the instructional materials concerned with human relationships, just as the social *sciences* became the collective term for the scholarly research materials dealing with human relationships.

CHARACTERISTICS OF THE SOCIAL STUDIES

The social studies field is distinguished from other fields by the fact that its *content* as well as its purpose is focused upon human beings and their relationships. All fields and subjects have social purposes and social utility. Naturally they serve some human need or they would not exist. Arithmetic, for example, has social utility and facilitates human relationships, but its content is not

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composed of materials about human beings and their relationships; it is not one of the social studies.

The term *social studies* refers primarily to materials for instructional purposes. No one expects an elementary geography or a civics textbook to be an original contribution to knowledge. The primary purpose of such books is to disseminate information, not to report its discovery.

It should be noted that the term *social studies* indicates no particular type of organization of materials. A social studies program may be organized as subjects, as a series of fused subjects, as problems or projects, as units or topics, or as activities and experiences. The term *social studies* is a name for the teaching materials dealing with human relationships and does not imply any particular form of organization.

The social studies deal with human beings and their relationships. Science deals with *things*, language with *communication*, mathematics with *quantities*, and art with *esthetics*, but the social studies deal with the *relationships* of people. The center of emphasis is upon relationships rather than upon individuals, upon social activities rather than individual performances. The social studies stress the fact that society makes individuals rather than the fact that society is composed of individuals. The social processes are more important than the social structure, although the social studies try to describe the structure as well as to explain the processes.

The social studies emphasize groups. The fact of individual differences is neither ignored nor denied, but the fact of individual similarities is stressed. The gregarious inclination is given prominence. Classes, groups, institutions, traditions, and all forms of multiple activities and organizations receive the recognition which is due them. No man lives to himself, and the social studies are devoted to a description of that life of man beyond himself.

THE SOCIAL SCIENCES AND THE SOCIAL STUDIES

Scholars have long recognized the similarities and common elements in such subjects as history, political science, economics, sociology, and geography. In fact, the relationships among these

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subjects became so numerous and close that an encompassing term for them became imperative. The one which has been used and accepted is the *social sciences*.

Like the social studies, the social *sciences* deal with human beings in their group relationships. Families, states, tribes, organizations — in fact, all groups and institutions — are the phenomena of the social sciences.

The social sciences are concerned with research, discovery, experimentation. The social scientist is eager to expand the bounds of human knowledge. His reports may or may not be useful in the schools; but they must be valid and must possess ultimate social utility. An analysis of the San Francisco conference, a study of price control, or a plan for the government of conquered areas may be dry, difficult, and uninteresting. It may be of no interest or value to school children, but any one of these reports may have the greatest social consequences.

The social scientist owes the highest loyalty to his subject and to the standards of scholarship. His purpose is to discover, verify, and report his findings, which may be complex. His report may be intricate and involved, but he is under no obligation to write for the hasty reader or the tired businessman.

On the other hand, the writer of social studies materials must be understood by the learner; otherwise he fails in his primary purpose, which is to disseminate knowledge. Thus, relative to the social sciences, the social studies must be simple, easy, appealing, interesting — above all, learnable. The two do not differ in kind; they differ only in level of difficulty.

The social sciences are designed to promote human knowledge. A particular study may be addressed to a small group. Matters of style, difficulty, and appeal are all secondary to social utility. But the social studies are designed for instructional purposes; their immediate social utility is secondary.

The social sciences and the social studies both deal with human relationships, the former on an adult level, the latter on a child level. Thus it is apparent that the social studies are derived primarily from the social sciences. Since the social sciences meet the standards of reliability, scholarship, and truth, it follows that the social studies, which are for the most part merely simplified

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versions of portions of the social sciences, will also be true and reliable. The social studies are the social sciences simplified and reorganized for instructional purposes. Thus the distinction between social sciences and social studies is not philosophical, or even theoretical: it is merely practical, a matter of convenience.

The distinction is easily seen in the case of political science and civics. Political science is an advanced, scholarly subject, taught and studied only at the college or graduate level; whereas civics is readily recognized as a school subject, organized primarily for instructional purposes. If there were different names for each of the social sciences and its corresponding social study, the distinction between the two fields would be greatly clarified.

HISTORY IN THE SOCIAL STUDIES FIELD

For some years after the recognition of the social studies field, historians were inclined to regard the field as a fad or a frill, as a temporary emphasis. Many of them sincerely felt that history was broad enough and deep enough to supply pupils with the social, geographic, political, and economic elements necessary for orientating themselves in the contemporary world. According to this view there was no real need for civics, geography, and sociology as school subjects.

Whatever may be the possibilities of history for supplying these elements, the fact is clear that the historians did not supply them. History as written tended to lag behind contemporary happenings; it scorned "current events." The schoolboy who waited for a history book to give him some light on a recent event would no longer be a schoolboy when the light came. Teachers in the schools, and not historians or scholars in their libraries, are responsible for the contemporary quality of the social studies.

The needs of boys and girls led to the synthesizing of separate subjects into the single field of social studies. And the process was not merely a problem of adding; e.g., history + geography + civics + sociology + economics = social studies. While this equation is helpful in seeing the distinctions between any one of the subjects and the whole field, it is an oversimplification of what happened.

The process of synthesizing the subjects into a field removes the limitations of each subject. Geography has been infused with sociology and history; civics has taken on more historical elements; and history itself has broadened its scope. But perhaps the most significant result has been the transformation of history from a subject into a *method*. This transformation has been almost completed in the elementary schools. In other words, history as a subject has been divided and distributed among the contemporary elements of the other subjects. History has thus been transformed into the genetic and evolutionary approach and utilized in the study of all topics. The pupil who studies transportation uses history to secure the early story; the class which studies the westward movement uses history to obtain materials. But in each case history itself is transformed from a subject into a method.

The total result has been that the contemporary subjects have survived as useful categories, while history has become a method, a means of approach. This change has been fortunate, fortunate for the pupils because it facilitates their learning; fortunate for history because it means that pupils learn history in connection with some vital aspect; they do not slavishly study it for its own sake.

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2. PROGRESS IN ELEMENTARY EDUCATION

THE ELEMENTARY SCHOOL AS A SOCIAL INSTITUTION

The elementary school is the melting pot of America. To it go the children of all the people, natives and immigrants, rich and poor, educated and illiterate. Within its walls the children learn to live and work and play together. The children recognize merit and choose their leaders without consciousness of race, color, or religion. For them the standard is the ability to lead and not whether they are named Tony, Leon, Ingrid, Hildegarde, Pat, Rebecca, Charles, Pedro, William, Fritz, Ivan, or Mary.

The elementary school does more than merely supplement the home, the church, and the community. For a period in the child's life the school almost monopolizes his time and his loyalties. It is the place where he meets other children, where he is introduced to strange new worlds of time and place, and where he learns new games and activities. It is the institution which begins the process of socializing the child in order that he may become a useful member of society.

The elementary school is making as well as serving society. It is not an institution with predetermined outcomes, a place of repression and restriction, but an institution for guiding children toward opportunities and providing them with selected experiences. It minimizes class distinctions and capitalizes upon individual differences. It is not educating children to suit the government but to become the government. In brief, it is the professional agency charged with the responsibility of creating sovereign citizens. To accomplish such a purpose it must have great freedom — freedom to choose its program, its methods, and its standards.

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The elementary schools are training citizens. They are teaching a reasoned and restrained patriotism; they are substituting *action* for *being*; they are emphasizing mutual aid, cooperation, and interdependence rather than competition and survival of the fittest; they are teaching and practicing both individual and group responsibility; they are training boys and girls to become Americans.

RISE OF SOCIAL STUDIES IN ELEMENTARY SCHOOLS

The day of formal divisions of the elementary program into subjects has passed. Even the fields are merged into mosaics of integration. The growth in knowledge and understanding of children has entailed the deletion of many adult categories and structures. Both the child and the teacher have profited by these changes.

No trend in elementary education has surpassed in importance and completeness the emergence of the social studies. The field has become the core of the curriculum, not universally in name, but in reality. Teachers of all grade levels have discerned the value and efficacy of group and committee activities. They have discovered the ease and effectiveness of developing number concepts and skills in connection with social settings. They have proved by thousands of instances that reading materials and poetry have affinity for social relationships. They have realized that science content gains in interest and value when interwoven with its social purposes. Teachers have found that reading lessons are most valuable when the content deals with human beings and that writing lessons become most fruitful when they embrace that which most interests the child — namely himself, playmates, parents, postmen, policemen, milkmen, and others whose functions he recognizes. Teachers now recognize that art and music also cluster around the core of the social studies and gain in appeal and vitality by illuminating and being illuminated by them.

The teacher of elementary grades inevitably becomes a social studies teacher. Whether the fields, such as science, arithmetic, reading, art, and music are specifically delimited by the course of study or are merged into themes, processes, areas, or functions,



FRIENDLY HUMAN RELATIONSHIPS ARE THE SUPREME
PURPOSE OF THE SOCIAL STUDIES.



ADEQUATE SUPPLIES AND ARTISTIC SURROUNDINGS
CONTRIBUTE TO PROGRESS IN ELEMENTARY EDUCATION.



PLAY, BOTH INDIVIDUAL AND GROUP, HELPS TO PROMOTE
SOCIAL DEVELOPMENT.

the experienced teacher soon realizes that the unifying thread, the universal appeal, the common ground of experience is found within the social studies. In practice, even more than in theory, the area of human relationships is providing content, activities, and method.

The emergence of the social studies has involved no lessening in the importance of other fields. On the contrary, they too have gained in significance by being more intimately related to the social purposes for which they exist. No competition among the fields need arise and no hierarchy of values or importance need be set up. The ingredients of child growth deserve no labels of priority; all are indispensable. Thus knowledge of child needs and skill in meeting them are working effectively to produce a curriculum that no committee preconceived, that no state department foresaw. Because of its nature and its universality the social studies field has become the heart of the elementary program.

COMPLEXITY OF OUR EDUCATIONAL SYSTEM

While the elementary school has clarified its functions and restricted its scope to children of specified ages, the American educational system as a whole has achieved no such specificity of purpose. The seamless web of life has no counterpart in the educational system. Instead of a continuous, smoothly graduated plan which would facilitate the progress of the child from the kindergarten to the graduate school, we have a series of disjointed institutions, each of which has developed without particular reference to the other. Instead of a seamless web we have a crazy patchwork. Thus the principles of continuity, integration, and growth which are praised so fervently and so frequently have had little influence upon the organization and administration of American schools.

The complacent apology that our system just grew up, that no one foresaw its development, that no one planned it is a confession rather than an explanation. Admitting that periods of experimentation and planless growth are necessary, one longs finally for the removal of obstacles and barriers, for the discarding of outmoded elements. A mere listing of the principal kinds of

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schools is sufficient to recall the complexity, the overlapping, and the unresolved inconsistencies in American education.

Nursery schools and kindergartens are the two most common institutions for children of preschool age. The junior high schools; the industrial, mechanical, commercial, technical, and vocational high schools; the junior colleges (purpose and function — unsettled); the colleges (endless varieties); industrial, agricultural, mechanical, and technological schools; the professional schools; and the graduate schools are the outstanding institutions which serve students who have completed the elementary grades.

In addition to these organized systems there are movements, trends, and campaigns which affect various schools. Adult education, general education, child welfare, mental hygiene, guidance and personnel, and other significant developments have led either to the founding of new schools or to the modification of existing institutions.

The emergence of a new movement or the founding of a new type of institution has usually been a response to a growing need, but the creation of a new type of school has seldom led to a sufficient modification of existing schools. The functions of the older schools have frequently remained unchanged. Thus the new ones have been superimposed upon old systems. The reassessment of objectives and functions which should logically have accompanied these changes has often not been made.

An encouraging trend toward continuity in the school curriculum seems to be emerging. The diverse studies and sharp breaks in the older programs were not in harmony with the realities of child development. These older programs seemed to be based upon the assumption of rapid and basic changes onto new levels of achievement and understanding. As a matter of fact, pupils at every grade level can plan, imagine, think, reason, and differentiate. They do not suddenly acquire these abilities. As they meet new situations, employ new materials, and utilize varying activities, they demonstrate progress in all these abilities. Fortunately supervisors and administrators are trying to organize the schools and build programs that reflect the realities of child growth.

STATUS OF ELEMENTARY SCHOOLS

The elementary schools occupy a place near the center of our educational system. Being near the center, conflicting demands from both directions have been made on them. They must teach children who have gone and those who have not gone to nursery schools and kindergartens. Because of the varying organizations among and within systems, the elementary schools must teach those who will go and those who will not go to junior high schools, those who will go and those who will not go to high schools.

The elementary schools have also had to respond to conflicting theories as to their functions. Before the rise of high schools the elementary schools alone constituted the "common schools." As such they were required by law to teach specified subjects, accept specified objectives, and observe specified holidays. After the rise of high schools they were placed in a subsidiary position. Many parents, some teachers, and even some state departments of education required the elementary school to provide preparatory training for high school. As a subordinate institution the elementary school could not develop a philosophy, objectives, or curriculums which really fitted the boys and girls of elementary school age.

The diversity among American schools is not necessarily an evil. It becomes so only if it prevents the development of an orderly plan for educating boys and girls. The various administrative units, such as kindergarten, elementary grades, junior high school, and senior high school, are not closely articulated. The pupils go through a succession of semiautonomous schools, each of which is often unintegrated with the other. As Kelty has aptly remarked,¹ "There has been a long-standing divorce between lower and upper schools — in purposes, in curriculum, even in administration, and as is usual in divorce cases, the children have been the chief sufferers."

¹ Mary G. Kelty, *History in the High School and Social Studies in the Elementary School*, Annual Proceedings of the Middle States Council for the Social Studies, 41:90, Philadelphia, 1944.

NATURE OF ELEMENTARY EDUCATION

From a practical standpoint elementary education is that training which is designed for children between the stages of infancy and adolescence. The identification of elementary education with the stage of childhood is approximately correct when the elementary school consists of six grades. When it consists of eight grades it inevitably includes children who have reached the stage of adolescence. Thus the elementary schools as they actually exist contain inconsistent and irreconcilable elements. The organization of the junior high school was designed to eliminate this obvious overlapping, which destroys the unity and purpose of the elementary school.

Theoretically, the different levels of schools are designed to care for the child as he advances through the various stages from infancy through childhood, adolescence, youth, and maturity. Thus the nurseries and kindergartens are supposedly adjusted to the stage of infancy, the elementary grades to childhood, the junior high school to adolescence, the senior high school to youth, and the college to the transition to maturity. If these stages were clearly identifiable, if they were characteristic of the majority of children, and if each kind of school actually met the needs of the children at its particular level, the American system would be altogether successful. But no authority claims that children are homogeneous in rate of development or that the stages of growth are clearly marked and differentiated; and not even the most enthusiastic proponent of our system claims that our school units satisfactorily meet the needs of the groups for which they are designed. The various stages of growth have been identified and described in only the most general terms. Too little is known about their characteristics to justify their use as a sure guide for making a curriculum and teaching boys and girls. Even if the stages were clearly marked, all children do not conform to them. Within any age group there is much overlapping. Thus the identification of elementary education with childhood is only approximate.

Some students of education have defined elementary education in terms of the quality of its work. They have assigned to it

a preparatory function, preparatory to reasoning, analyzing, synthesizing, generalizing, and all other major intellectual processes. Assuming that the elements of these processes must first be collected and then put together at some future stage of maturation, such writers have assigned to the elementary school the tasks (1) of teaching primary skills, (2) of initiating the acquisition of information but not necessarily its understanding or use, and (3) of developing desirable attitudes and habits. This view of the function of the elementary school reflects an erroneous interpretation of the learning process and a mistaken notion of the nature of children.

The principles of learning apply at all age levels. Education is a continuous process which rests upon the synthesizing of experience into meaningful patterns. A person does not acquire a technique or a skill at one time and conserve it until it is appropriate to use it. The mastery of a skill comes only by its application to meaningful situations. One cannot learn to read, or write, or use an index in *vacuo*; he cannot store the skill for future use and expect it to be bright and polished. Skills, techniques, and processes are developed and expanded by use. Hence the idea that the function of the elementary school is to store up skills for future use is utterly fallacious.

Theoretically, elementary education is concerned with providing guided growth during childhood, but in practice large numbers of elementary schools include adolescents. Thus the function of the elementary schools as many of them are now organized is to provide for the training and development of boys and girls during childhood and early adolescence. This is a definition in terms of service and not in terms of theory or quality of work. Elementary education is as complex, as inclusive, and as intangible as education at any other level. Hence any attempt to oversimplify it is a disservice to teachers and pupils. Progress in elementary education can be made only when its complexities and difficulties are recognized and accepted.

CHANGES IN ELEMENTARY EDUCATION

In spite of the complexity of American education and the conflicting demands made upon the elementary schools, they have

made marked progress. It is frequently said that our teaching is best in the kindergarten and primary grades, good in the middle grades, fair in junior high schools, passable in senior high schools, poor in college, and worst at the graduate level; in other words, that teaching becomes progressively poorer as one ascends the grade scale. In the earlier stages the children are unquestionably more responsive, results are more tangible, and teacher satisfaction is greater. But even disregarding these factors, the generalization that our best teaching is done in the elementary schools is probably correct.

Recent progress in elementary education has been made in a period of relative neglect of the field from a national standpoint. During the past twenty years elementary education has attracted little attention. Research grants have been made largely for studies at other levels of our educational ladder. National committees have devoted themselves to particular problems and fields. The problems of youth, especially unemployed and, more recently, neglected youth, have deserved and received attention. Adult education in all its varied aspects has been studied and promoted. World War II caused shifts in emphases and close examination of several areas and subjects. Secondary education, especially its organization and curriculums, has required repeated study. General education has emerged as a concept and a program. Vocational education continues to merit attention. And perhaps as significant as any one recent development has been the study of children, especially children of preschool age. In all these efforts the elementary schools have been relatively neglected.

The most obvious explanation of the relative neglect of elementary education is to say that it is already reasonably satisfactory, that other parts of our educational system were in greater need of study and revision. Educational deficiencies revealed by World War II were found in the high schools, colleges, and specialized schools of various kinds. The elementary schools have done well in teaching the fundamental skills and in socializing the boys and girls.

Assuming that there is some truth in the statement that our elementary schools have been reasonably satisfactory, we need

an explanation for such a performance. Perhaps it can be found in the growing freedom and competence of elementary teachers. In many schools they are no longer required to follow a prescribed course of study, an adopted textbook, or a detailed plan. They have become curriculum makers, which inevitably means that they have also become better students of the content which goes into the curriculum. They have developed a sense of responsibility toward the pupils, which certainly involves a better understanding of children's needs and interests. Elementary teachers have developed more varied and appealing methods, have learned the value of equipment, and have humanized their relationships with the pupils.

This growth in professional competence has manifested itself in the widespread acceptance of the obligation to adjust the curriculum to the pupils. Teachers by the thousands have thought of their pupils — their needs, interests, and especially their limitations — and have proceeded to adjust the curriculum to the children rather than to fashion the children to fit the curriculum.

While elementary education has attracted little national attention, it has been the area of study of thousands of local committees in cities, counties, and states. Whether these local committees are generating their own ideas, or whether perhaps the reports of national committees and the work of national organizations carried on during earlier decades are finally bearing fruit, the fact is obvious that curriculum making, at least for the elementary schools, has been decentralized.

Once teachers accepted the responsibility of making the curriculum, they began to grow professionally. They became better students of content, of child nature, of the psychology of learning, and of methods. They began to demonstrate what educators have long claimed, namely, that solutions to educational problems would be found by developing better teachers. Other factors, such as improved equipment, better supervision and administration, rising standards for certification, improved information about children, and better working conditions have also promoted progress in elementary education. But the most marked changes have occurred in the areas of pupil-teacher relations,

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the content and organization of the curriculum, greater freedom for the pupils, the greater use of the community, and the enormous growth in pupil projects and activities, and these vital changes stem from or center around the teacher. Whether these achievements are exceptional or typical may be partly a matter of opinion, but they are at least frequent and widespread enough to stand as challenges to those who have not reached such standards.

SOME SPECIFIC ACHIEVEMENTS OF THE ELEMENTARY SCHOOL

Attacks upon education, like attacks upon the government, are always in order. The citizens maintain schools and have an unquestionable right to praise and criticize them. Unfortunately the attacks which attract most attention are often made by those who are ill equipped either to praise or criticize. If the public has an obligation to criticize its schools and can do so with a light-hearted attitude, educators are under the double obligation to judge the schools correctly and then proceed to try to remove the faults. Such an examination is always in order.

One of the outstanding achievements of the elementary school is the substitution of activities for passivity. Gone are the days when pupils kept still and learned; they now learn as they build, talk, sing, act, and play. Elementary teachers recognized the fact that pupils needed additional experiences before they could profitably learn vicariously. The activity program, by whatever name it may be called, has well-nigh won the field, not merely because the children prefer action to rest but because they learn more by activity than by sitting still.

A second achievement is the changed attitude of boys and girls toward school. They now like to go to school; even the pose of hating the teacher has lost its supposed humor and is understood only by the older generation. This changed attitude has been effected at the same time that psychologists are proving the unquestionable superiority of rewards over punishments, of ease and unnaturalness over constraint and discipline. The teachers know that a happy, natural attitude toward school is a good augury of satisfactory progress. The transformation of the class room from a place of repression into one of freedom is an achievement for

which teachers deserve great praise, for it was done in the face of indifference and opposition from many parents and some administrators.

A third achievement is the broadening of the curriculum to include art, music, handicrafts, games, and elements of social behavior. This enrichment has made great contributions, not only to the training in skills and information, but also to the development of wholesome personalities.

The elementary schools have taught reading with increasing success. After generations of fumbling and following false leads of various educators, the teachers seem to have found fairly successful ways of introducing pupils to the printed page. The introduction of reading as a key to desired information, together with better timing and the use of better materials, is one of the elements in the improvement in the teaching of reading.

A fifth achievement is the great improvement in the skills connected with study. Indexes, tables of contents, pictures, charts, and various types of books are explained and used even in the primary grades. In successive grades these study skills are broadened and improved. The improvements in reading and in study skills are bound to result in a generation which will be more alert and better informed.

A sixth achievement is a growing recognition of the educative value of the activities that children employ in order to achieve their own purposes. Respect for human personality has penetrated the classroom. Instead of a group of wayward and willful children bent upon resisting instruction, the progressive teacher sees a group of alert boys and girls whose ideas and plans need guidance rather than restraint, help rather than opposition. The idea that the teacher has been deputized by society to curb and conquer has been replaced by the realization that the pupils, individually and collectively, can make plans and achieve purposes that contribute to their own development. Teachers are learning to respect and utilize the educative possibilities that are latent in child personality.

A final achievement is the widespread use of the local community. Stores, farms, fire stations, libraries, museums, churches, factories, in fact, all kinds of institutions, agencies, persons, and

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organizations have been utilized and so have been synthesized with the lives of the pupils. The community agencies furnish not only motivation and method, but they also supply varied and colorful content. The elementary teacher has brought the community into the school.

In addition to utilizing the community, pupils, with the help of teachers, are making direct and valuable contributions to it. In the earliest grades the children are beginning to understand that the public library is community property, that the park is a joint playground, that the post office is a service provided by the national community. The children are thus training themselves to become more cooperative citizens. In addition to growth in community consciousness many schools and classes initiate or join in safety campaigns, celebrations, and service enterprises. Thus elementary schools utilize the community and in turn make their contributions to its welfare.

SOME UNSOLVED PROBLEMS IN ELEMENTARY EDUCATION

In spite of general progress and specific achievements, elementary schools still face many problems and issues. Perhaps the greatest unsolved challenge to education as a whole, including the elementary school, is to find the proper relationship between society and the schools. In this endeavor the elementary schools have lagged behind the high schools and colleges. The immaturity of the pupils, their relative freedom from social responsibilities, and the tendency of the schools to concentrate upon skills and information have been used as explanations for the frequent failure to reflect social changes in the elementary program. Whether a satisfactory formula can ever be found is doubtful, but the schools cannot escape the responsibility of trying (1) to develop intelligent boys and girls, (2) to pass on the relevant portions of the social heritage, and (3) to allow for and promote social inventions and improvements. And it is certain that progress in this area, as in all others, can be made only by the whole-hearted understanding and participation of teachers. The elementary teacher must be a student of society as well as of the school.

The nature of children has become a second area of study, but

much research is still to be done and wider attention must be given to its findings. Within recent years much has been learned about the physical growth of children, considerable data concerning their interests and attitudes have been collected, and the learning process is much clearer than it was a generation ago. Many studies have been made of infants and of nursery and kindergarten children, and within the last few years have been extended to the period from five to ten years of age.

A fairly well connected series of studies has now covered the major aspects of growth from birth to adulthood. In spite of the illumination that has come from these studies much needs to be done in showing their specific application to curriculum and methods. The cultivation of desirable habits, the development of a wholesome personality, the growth of character, and the acquisition of social intelligence are processes which are dimly understood by students of children. Teaching for such purposes is still largely in the trial and error stage. In view of the importance of early progress toward these goals, the elementary schools need more knowledge about children.

A third issue of considerable importance is the question of the proper role of the teacher. She has ceased to be a disciplinarian, a hearer of lessons, and an external conscience. The natural tendency of going to the opposite extreme has led some educators to assign the teacher an insignificant role, making her a benevolent, laissez-faire observer of what the children do. Thus the proper role of the teacher is an unsettled issue, even though it is certain that she will be neither a strict monitor nor an aimless observer. The proper role will, of course, depend in part upon the results of a fuller analysis of children and upon the solution of such problems as the place of the school in the social order, and the nature of the curriculum.

A fourth problem of elementary education is the determining of the curriculum. The two extremes are a prearranged, planned, and formal program on the one hand and planless activities on the other. No one advocates either extreme. The problem is to select materials and organize a program which will take account of the nature, interests, and limitations of boys and girls and also of the demands of society. The making of a curriculum is, of

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course, an ever-present problem, but some principles, procedures, and methods of lasting validity might be discovered and applied repeatedly. Toward the solution of this problem thousands of local committees have directed their attention during the past decade. Whether or not the correct answers have been found, some progress has been made.

One aspect of the broadened curriculum is that of wider relationships. Elementary programs have stressed the local environment, and teachers have made extensive and successful use of the community and the nation. The ever-widening circle of interdependence has compelled adults to extend their knowledge and broaden their interests. Only unrealistic evasion could lead to a neglect of these wider horizons by the elementary schools. The organization of the United Nations and the active leadership exercised by the United States have properly received the active attention of teachers and pupils. Our role in Europe and the Far East is affecting the life of every family in America. In spite of the difficulties of including such matters in the elementary curriculum, they must be included. Fortunately, new agencies for the dissemination of information have been developed. The radio has continued its conquest of time and space. More recently television has removed the last barriers to the observation of contemporary occurrences on a national scale. Within a decade elementary pupils will be able to observe and hear the activities in the harbor of Hong Kong, the debates in Parliament, a lion hunt in Africa, the fabrication of a carpet in Sultanabad, or any other activity that may have educative value.

This widening scope requires even more attention than ever before to foreign peoples, distant products, and complicated relationships. The children of America need the information, understandings, and attitudes that will equip them to participate in world affairs. The difficulty and complexity of current developments must not lead to their neglect. Attention to such matters need be limited only by pupil capacities and the school calendar.

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Says that what people think is true is often more important than what is true. Cites several false notions which people have with respect to education: (1) that education is a local matter, (2) that we are a growing, vigorous nation, (3) that high schools prepare for vocations, (4) that school board members are "representative" of citizens generally, (5) that general public opinion operates on leaders and officials to make them do the right thing, (6) that democracy is primarily a political concept, (7) that children are much alike, and (8) that leisure and recreation need no particular attention. Recommends popular education to eradicate these anachronisms and replace them with realistic opinions.

3. TRENDS IN THE SOCIAL STUDIES

CURRENT PRACTICES

Like all active fields, the social studies are constantly undergoing changes. Progress is made by experimentation, by observations of children, by changes in content, by the use of new methods, by the search for new ways to evaluate results, and by various other means. No one argues that changes are necessarily in the direction of progress, but the assumption is that practices which become predominant and widespread, those that receive the approval of educators, and those that seem to be suited to changed conditions are preferable to older practices. There is satisfaction in perceiving the direction of changes even when these changes are not always for the best. Hence a description of the current trends in the social studies field has value for prospective teachers as well as for those already in service.

Every teacher is interested in the program which he teaches. Is it typical or representative? Does it utilize the latest findings in psychology, child study, and contents? To what extent is it in line with best practices and current trends?

Answers to these legitimate and pertinent questions are not easy. When one tries to secure an inclusive picture of current practices he soon realizes that there is no national system. The Office of Education collects data and disseminates information, but it does not make programs or advocate uniformity. The states are free to introduce new subjects and modify existing practices. Within the states the large cities are almost autonomous in educational matters. No adequate or uniform reports are made concerning subjects, content, enrollment, methods, equipment, examinations, or other school practices.

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Perhaps the greatest difficulty in securing a national picture of the social studies program is found in the overlapping and unstandardized terminology. Formerly one could assume that the elementary schools were teaching subjects or some fused combination of subjects called the social studies. Such simple categories are no longer valid. Instead one has to untangle the complex of meanings which cluster around such terms as "themes," "basic problems," "processes," "centers of interest," "social functions," "areas of experience," and "ways of living." In general these terms indicate bases of selection and not types of organization, for practically all programs which use these terms organize the materials in units.

In spite of the absence of a national system and the extent of local variations, every student of education knows that educational practices tend to become nation-wide. Educational ideas are mobile, teachers cross and recross state lines to attend universities, and our professional literature has national circulation. Numerous studies have been made which are based upon selected states in which reports are reliable and inclusive, upon wide sampling, upon regional trends, and upon the observations and generalizations by those with wide contacts. These studies provide a fairly accurate picture of current practices and central tendencies, showing that some offerings, practices, and trends become typical. Although the variety and diversity of elementary social studies programs and practices make generalizing difficult and ephemeral, it is possible to identify and describe some central tendencies. Recognition of these tendencies is instructive for prospective teachers and reassuring to those in service.

Trends cannot be accurately classified under the familiar categories of objectives, curriculum, method, etc. The most pronounced trends spring from the new philosophy concerning children and how they learn. Hence the following trends are classified according to their predominant purpose, element, or characteristic. Most of them embrace more than one purpose. For example, Trend 5, *Intercultural Relationships*, stresses an objective, employs socializing procedures, and involves much new content. Most of the other trends also defy easy classification. It should be recognized that they are classified here in order to fa-

cilitate recognition and not for the purpose of delimiting or restricting them.

CHILD DEVELOPMENT AND RELATED TRENDS

1. ELEMENTARY TEACHERS ARE ENGROSSED IN THE STUDY OF CHILD DEVELOPMENT. So predominant is this trend that it overshadows others, obscures competing viewpoints, and determines the nature of some accompanying trends. Reliable data about children have increased rapidly, and clear and fairly reliable tables and charts showing stages, characteristics, and abilities have appeared in education books and courses of study. Teachers have responded with alertness and enthusiasm, for they see the value and relevance of this new development. While its effects upon the curriculum have as yet not been thoroughgoing, it has already greatly modified teachers' attitudes toward pupils and toward adult demands (see Chapter 4).

The study of child development has resulted in a new attitude toward children — one of respect for their abilities, individualities, and potentialities. It has involved a reorganization of content in order to bring it into line with the child's capacities and interests. It has entailed the development of new procedures in social relationships. In general, it has greatly modified educational philosophy concerning the elementary schools.

Proponents of child study see all of these outcomes and predict that additional values will ensue when more teachers seriously study their pupils. Some critical writers have feared that the child development trend will obscure an appreciation of social heritage and substitute immature reactions for adult knowledge. Proponents of the movement reply that the child, when respected, trusted, and guided, will eventually acquire a fuller and better appreciation of the cultural heritage than by the older procedures. Whatever the eventual result of this difference may be, it is now clear that the child has achieved a dignity and a freedom hitherto denied him.

2. COOPERATIVE PLANNING IS BECOMING ALMOST THE MODAL PRACTICE. The idea of teacher-pupil planning is not new, but originally it implied a somewhat formal exchange, usually for the purpose of securing pupil assent. Currently, the trend is toward a

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sincere and unreserved quest for pupil participation. Individual pupils, groups, committees, classes, and teachers are learning the value of consultation and discussion, not alone in planning what shall be done but also in carrying out projects and in evaluating them when completed. Growth in this process results in part from greater knowledge of child development, which almost inevitably involves more consideration, courtesy, and respect for children.

Teacher-pupil planning was tried with doubts and misgivings by many teachers, but a goodly number of the cautious experimenters have become devout and enthusiastic proponents of the procedure. In general, joint planning has resulted in the selection of more appealing and more varied activities and in more tangible results. Noticeable gains have been recorded in personal-social growth, in the acquisition of skills, in greater eagerness to find and utilize reading materials, and in community awareness.

3. TEACHERS ARE STUDYING SOCIAL INTERACTION AMONG THEIR PUPILS. The nature of social relationships, the status of each pupil within the class, the identification of leaders and laggards, and ways of promoting social integration are receiving serious attention. Projects and units are being evaluated in part by ascertaining their effects upon group morale and upon the promotion of better interpupil relationships. Tests, charts, and sociograms are employed to analyze social situations. Teachers now assume that personality is an entity that can be modified and that good will and harmonious relations can be developed through guided cooperation.

4. CHILDREN ARE LEARNING CITIZENSHIP THROUGH DEMOCRATIC PRACTICES. Through clubs, programs, assemblies, committees, and other situations that require courtesy, respect, and cooperation, pupils are learning something of structure and procedure. They learn to accept responsibility and to recognize that good citizenship requires mutual acceptance of specified duties and obligations. The result is a fruitful combination of experience and learning, of curriculum and methods. Respect for one another, appreciation of the services rendered by social and governmental agencies, the development of group procedures, and projects involving the community are utilized to develop democratic skills

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and attitudes and to expand information about local, state, and national governments. America's increased role in foreign lands and the activities of the United Nations and its agencies have given impetus to the growth of the concept of world citizenship.

5. ELEMENTARY SCHOOLS ARE EMPHASIZING INTERCULTURAL RELATIONSHIPS. Teacher after teacher has ascertained the racial, linguistic, and nationalistic backgrounds of the pupils. In many classes ten, fifteen, or even twenty variations have appeared. Projects designed to show the contributions of various groups tend to promote respect and good will. Prejudices are analyzed, the techniques of bigotry are identified, and the contributions of peoples and nations are enumerated. These specific and direct methods are effective in the classroom and on the playground. Social pressures and practices beyond the school may mar, but they do not nullify the teacher's efforts. This trend is a blend of objective, curriculum, and method. Information about the cultural achievements of various groups is studied; democratic methods are utilized; and the objective of intergroup understanding is promoted. While this trend is not so pronounced as it was a few years ago, it apparently remains a genuine, persistent, and widespread practice.

TRENDS IN OBJECTIVES

6. THE OBLIGATION TO TEACH FOR INTERNATIONAL UNDERSTANDING IS WIDELY RECOGNIZED. This trend is predominantly one of purpose, one that leads to a variety of content and activities. Teachers recognize that good will among face-to-face groups is not automatically transferred to distant peoples and countries; hence teaching to effect this specific purpose seems to be necessary. In the primary grades the emphasis is upon the food, dress, and play of children in other lands; in the middle grades the exchange of products is stressed; and in the upper grades intercultural exchanges are described. All of these materials are used to develop the realization of interdependence and the desirability of reciprocal good will. The desire to maintain peace also plays a large part in this trend. In some schools the study of the United Nations, UNESCO, other United Nations agencies, and world citizenship are merged into the inclusive purpose of promoting in-

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ternational understanding. Racial and cultural differences are presented as resources rather than as causes for friction. This trend seems to be gaining momentum.

7. **TEACHERS ARE STRESSING THE DESIRABILITY OF CRITICAL, REALISTIC THINKING.** While the scientific method is sometimes regarded as too exacting to be applied extensively by elementary pupils, accuracy, objectivity, and logical conclusions are clearly within their competence. Sentimental attitudes, romantic ideas, and vague generalizations about peoples of other lands are being replaced by concrete and objective data. Much attention is given to discrepancies in the reports concerning foreign affairs. Simple formulas for ascertaining the truth, comparing sources, and testing authorities are being derived. In some classes the development of critical thinking is interwoven with problem solving, for that procedure seems to make direct contributions to the achievement of critical thinking.

TRENDS IN THE CURRICULUM

While it is not entirely correct to classify the following trends as wholly curricular in nature, the content aspect seems to be the outstanding characteristic. Shifts in objectives and the emergence of greater social concern, however, play their part in these trends. The classification of them under "curriculum" should therefore not be construed as a delimitation of their scope or a minimizing of their importance.

8. **MOST PROGRAMS STRESS THE LOCAL COMMUNITY AND THE STATE.** The very nature of the social studies makes it almost inevitable that teachers utilize the groups, institutions, and areas which are close at hand. Thus availability, suitability, and local pride combine to secure a recognized place in the curriculum for local and state materials. Naturally the introduction of these types of material increases the degree of variation when viewed from the national standpoint. Since, however, many of these materials in one city or state have parallels in others, they may be regarded as following national patterns which vary largely in local details. In other words, the local formula follows a national pattern.

Even a partial list of activities employed in utilizing the community demonstrates the variety and richness of this trend. Field

trips, interviews, plans, letters of inquiry and appreciation, reports, pictures, assembly programs, booklets, maps, lists, tables, graphs, teas, invited speakers, films, public documents — these and many other activities and materials demonstrate the resourcefulness of pupils and teachers.

9. ELEMENTARY SCHOOLS ARE GIVING INCREASED ATTENTION TO CONSERVATION. The accelerated rate at which we are consuming lumber, minerals, and soils has generated widespread concern lest we jeopardize progress and undermine future existence. This popular awareness is extensively reflected in classrooms. Campaigns for salvaging paper have implications for conservation; the collection of seeds from trees and their subsequent scattering by airplanes is a dramatic instance of pupil participation in conservation. Pupils who live in irrigated areas are peculiarly sensitive to the value of water. Soil erosion has been vividly presented by pictures and field trips. The desirability of preserving trees, protecting birds, providing for wildlife, and conserving materials that are needed for national defense have provided problems for many classes. Waste and uneconomic uses have been identified and deplored. It is possible that this trend could result in a generation of adults who will give the problem the attention that many teachers and pupils think that it deserves now.

10. SOCIAL STUDIES CLASSES ARE EMPHASIZING WORLD ORGANIZATION. The founding of the United Nations, the growth of its numerous agencies, particularly UNESCO, accelerated a movement that started in connection with the League of Nations. The idea of an over-all state that can regulate the international activities of countries cannot be banished from the human mind. Units on the achievements of the United Nations appear in many schools. At least three large cities have prepared extensive guides for its study. Pupils are not blind to the obstacles on the road to peace; they see the clash of national interests; they grasp the idea of the pressure of population upon resources; but they also see that war is not the wise or economical solution to these difficulties.

11. TEACHERS ARE ALMOST UNANIMOUS IN REGARDING THE SOCIAL STUDIES CURRICULUM AS ELASTIC AND FLEXIBLE. Old materials can be deleted or minimized; new ones can be added without delay or formality. Sensitivity to changing conditions is an outstanding

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characteristic of elementary social studies. If teachers see that a unit on social procedures is needed it can be introduced. If a strike, a spectacular accident, a current election, a bill before Congress, civilian defense, or any other current development seems to warrant attention, the typical teacher seizes the opportunity and teaches social studies in their latest setting. Flexibility and elasticity are replacing prearranged courses and assigned units.

TRENDS IN SELECTION AND ORGANIZATION

12. CHILD NEEDS ARE BECOMING THE CRITERIA FOR SELECTING MATERIALS AND ACTIVITIES. This is no new trend, but many changes have occurred in the idea of what children need. The ingredients necessary for the development of well-adjusted personalities, of gaining skill in social relationships, of contributing to group welfare, and of active participation receive more attention than formerly (see Chapter 5). The child may need guidance in selecting his lunch more than he needs to know the products of France; to overcome his lack of confidence more than to understand the virtues of George Washington; to observe safety precautions more than to understand how laws are made. This trend does not limit or restrict the curriculum; rather it sets up priorities in sequence; it determines order rather than importance; and when fully developed it will lead to no diminution in attention to the social heritage; for eventually the child's needs will lead him to acquire a large portion of society's accumulated knowledge.

13. THE MAJORITY OF SCHOOLS ARE ELIMINATING OR AT LEAST OBSCURING SUBJECT LABELS. This trend is most obvious in the first four grades and is discernible even at the junior high school level. The widespread use of units, the frequency of projects, and the growth of group planning probably account to a considerable extent for the diminution of attention to subjects as such. The trend is by no means universal, however, for some schools that emphasize units nonetheless select them within the limits of history, geography, or civics.

This trend away from subjects distresses some parents, some guardians of the old curriculum, and some scholars of the content fields. While teachers of children realize that subject labels are unimportant and that the outcomes will be as great without them,

it is perhaps desirable, for the sake of public relations, to reassure those who lament the obscuring of ancient landmarks. We can assure them that the area of education is even larger than ever, that merely a few interfield boundary lines have been removed.

14. IN THE PRIMARY GRADES SUBJECT LABELS HAVE DISAPPEARED. The attempt to distinguish among subjects was recognized as the premature introduction of adult categories. At this level the pupils have almost no need of major headings because they have not yet identified the materials that belong under each. The content materials for the primary grades are not the results of fusion, integration, or unification; they are simply the undifferentiated mass of experiences and materials that is suitable for children who are not yet ready for distinctions and categories. Fortunately the interests and needs of children have replaced adult notions of what they should study.

Even though the familiar subjects have disappeared, the content of the primary grades approaches standardization. The immediate environment, the basic institutions, everyday concepts, primary skills, the study of other children, safety, health, and recreation are inevitable ingredients for these grades. The theme of widening horizons, geographically, socially, and experientially, constitutes the guiding principle.

15. MOST PROGRAMS CONTAIN ELEMENTS FROM ALL THE SOCIAL STUDIES. History, geography, and civics, or large portions of these subjects, have long had a recognized place in elementary social studies, but it is widely assumed that sociology and economics make almost no contributions at this level. For many years, however, such economic topics as thrift, conservation, occupations, trade, consumer practices, and money have received attention. Within recent years more, and perhaps further advanced, economic materials are being added. From sociology such topics as the family, the community, migrations, customs, manners, institutions, and other sociological elements are receiving increased attention. On the whole, the elementary program is being enriched by materials from history and all the other social studies.

The appropriation of contents from each of the five familiar school studies reassures teachers that they are omitting no impor-

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tant elements, and the fact that the materials are found in the familiar setting implies acceptability and reliability. So in a way, the subjects still provide one principle of selection; fortunately it is only an advisory and not a prescriptive principle.

16. **PROGRAMS TEND TO STRESS LIFE IN AMERICA.** In the primary grades the trend is to delete units on Eskimos, Indians, and other groups that were frequently pictured in an unreal or sentimental manner. Instead the primary program tends more and more to deal with persons, institutions, and activities that the pupil encounters in his immediate environment. In the middle grades less emphasis is being placed upon European backgrounds. There is some decline in attention given to the journey type of geography. Instead greater stress is placed upon ways of living in our own country, upon democracy as a way of life, and upon our relations with our world neighbors. In the upper grades the trend is toward a greater emphasis upon America in its world setting. This trend is a blending of national and international viewpoints. While it centers upon the United States it also reveals a wider consciousness of interrelations and mutual dependence.

17. **THE UNIT IS THE PREDOMINANT FORM OF ORGANIZATION.** In spite of variation, amounting to inconsistency, the unit is the prevailing basis for arranging materials and activities. Even when the program is built on themes, processes, areas, problems, projects, or life needs, it still utilizes the unit structure. In the primary grades the unit has been greatly altered, and in many schools the unit *method* is scarcely used. In fact, the unit as Morrison conceived it has given way to a looser, more flexible collection of related materials. The needs of the learner take precedence over the logic of the content. Thus in practice the unit has become less formal, less content-centered, and less rigid in its requirements.

18. **THE CONTENTS OF THE SOCIAL STUDIES ARE GRADED ON THE PRINCIPLE OF WIDENING HORIZONS.** In the primary grades the practice of following a sequence of expanding horizons is recognized and fairly well standardized. The home, neighborhood, school, community, and city are used to parallel the child's growth and expansion of interests. In other grades the principle is neither so clear nor so frequent, but the contents of successive

grade levels reflect a progressive widening in time, place, inclusiveness, and complexity. Sometimes this expansion is obvious, as in the regression from the present through colonial times back to the ancients by the time the pupil reaches Grade VI, or in the study of local geography, the United States, North America, and then other continents. Sometimes the expansion is implicit in the repetition of the same topics or themes at successive grade levels, presumably deepening and expanding the pupil's understanding of more extensive and complex materials.

MISCELLANEOUS TRENDS

19. TEACHERS AND PUPILS ARE USING A GREATER VARIETY OF READING MATERIALS. This trend involves the widespread use of parallel textbooks, supplementary readers, commercially sponsored booklets, public reports, advertisements, maps, pamphlets, posters, clippings, magazines, newspapers, school papers, and many reports and booklets that are prepared by the pupils themselves. This wider reading provides training in locating and studying pertinent data; it also provides many occasions for comparing, contrasting, and reconciling or solving inconsistencies and contradictions. Freedom to use a variety of sources develops a sense of responsibility. Problem solving is frequently interwoven with the utilization of these varied materials. Altogether the trend seems to be a helpful expansion beyond the traditional library resources.

20. TEACHERS AND PUPILS ARE USING MORE VARIED AIDS. To the traditional maps, pictures, motion pictures, and radio have been added phonograph records, various kinds of recordings both commercially and domestically produced, transcriptions, and television. The growing use of these devices and aids is proof of the alertness of teachers and evidence of the necessity of keeping up with improvements in the dissemination of information. It behoves the schools to utilize every device that promotes sound learning.

RANGE OF CONTENTS OF THE SOCIAL STUDIES

By examining a number of courses of study, it is possible to compile a list of all the topics or units which they offer at each grade level. The number of different offerings for Grade VI, for

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example, exceeds thirty. Such a compilation enables one to see at a glance the *potential* content of any particular grade. If from this inclusive compilation it is possible to select the four or five which have greatest frequency, the prospective teacher can then see the *probable* content of a particular grade. The list indicates the full range of content. In the next section will be found a list of the topics which are most typical at each grade level.

GRADE	I	Home, the family, family helpers, neighborhood, school, community, food, clothing, shelter, safety, pioneer days, holidays, children of other lands, stores, farms, songs, the flag, games, travel, communication, transportation, beautifying the home, library, dairy
GRADE	II	Indians, primitive people, early settlers, neighborhood, home, school, community, heroes, holidays, civic duties, food, clothing, shelter, protection, communication, transportation, stores, farms, foreign trade, travel, earth, health, play, beautifying the neighborhood, Eskimos, safety
GRADE	III	Colonial life, Indians, people of other lands, Mexico, Brazil, Philippines, China, holidays, primitive people, local history, local geography, biographies, hunting, farming, explorers, home, school, community, safety, cooperation, interdependence, citizenship, food, clothing, shelter, protection, local heroes, industries
GRADE	IV	Colonial history, Indians, Greece, Rome, Middle Ages, discoveries, state history, local history, famous persons, schools, clothing, farming, government, occupations, life in foreign lands, industries, geography, geographical regions, state geography, recreation, current events
GRADE	V	American history, early American history, later American history, local history, state history, current events, famous persons, exploration and discovery, European backgrounds, development of democracy, civics, community civics, economic life, safety, health, citizenship, transportation, interdependence, geography, geography of United States, of North America, of Western Hemisphere, of Europe, of Asia and Africa, life in other lands, environment, lumbering, mining, fishing
GRADE	VI	American history, later American history, European backgrounds, local history, state history, ancient and

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medieval history, biographies, vocations, communication, transportation, interdependence, education, culture, commerce, migrations, industries, health and safety, recreation, democracy, civics, local government, state government, immigration, taxation, conservation, geography, world geography, geography of South America, of North America, of Asia, Africa, Europe, and Canada

GRADE VII American history, early American history, European backgrounds, ancient history, state history, economic history, westward movement, orientation, social studies, Latin America, British Empire, Far East, civics, community, industries, vocations, U. S. Constitution, geography, economic geography

GRADE VIII American history, ancient history, European history, social history, economic history, current history, international relations, social studies, civics (various kinds), U. S. Constitution, geography (various kinds)

These abbreviated listings do not do full justice to the contents of the various programs from which they were taken. The purpose here, however, is to obtain a bird's-eye view of the whole sweep of content. Some of the headings indicate subjects; others indicate topics or units or other elements of content. While the list is probably not complete, for other elements may be given in each of the grades, it is inclusive enough to afford a fair idea of the range of content.

The overlapping is frequent and obvious. Within any one system, however, much of it would be eliminated, and even from this list one has no right to assume that "industries" in Grade VII is a duplication of "industries" in Grade IV, or that the "American history" of Grade VIII is a repetition of the "American history" of Grade V. The disorder is probably not so great as it appears in this panoramic view.

CENTRAL TENDENCIES IN SOCIAL STUDIES OFFERINGS

The social studies programs are very fluid. It is therefore difficult to specify numerically the content tendency of a particular grade. The following list, however, presents those which seem to be most characteristic or frequent.

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GRADES I-III	Home, family, school, community, food, shelter, clothing, protection, Indian life, life in other lands, holidays, making a living
GRADE IV	Geography, local history and geography, state history and geography, occupations
GRADE V	American history, industries or occupations, geography of the United States and North America
GRADE VI	European backgrounds, geography of Europe, Asia, and Africa
GRADE VII	American history, civics, geography of the United States, social studies
GRADE VIII	American history, civics, social studies, geography

These headings are designed to indicate content and not organization or unit titles. It would therefore be an error for the reader to assume that in Grade VI, for example, the typical course of study lists only European backgrounds and geography. These two headings merely indicate materials that are most typical for this grade.

Current trends bring rapid changes in the programs offered by the schools. It seems clear that certain topics which do not appear in the list of central tendencies above are now receiving increased attention. Among these may be listed Latin America, the Far East, Indonesia, Japan, Korea, Russia, air-age geography, world government, UNESCO, the United Nations, and national defense. Some or all of these have already achieved status in some programs. Whether or not any of them eventually becomes a central tendency depends upon future developments.

LEGAL STATUS OF THE SOCIAL STUDIES

In the United States the federal government has no direct control over the schools. The programs which evolve are therefore the results of popular demands expressed through state constitutions and laws, and the regulations of state departments of education. While the constitutions provide that there shall be school systems, the details are left to the legislatures and to the education departments.

State after state prescribed that the "common branches" be taught, among them history, geography, and civics. Following

these basic prescriptions, state legislatures have enacted hundreds of laws concerning the curriculum, most of them affecting the social studies. There are a total of nearly two hundred different holidays and days for special celebrations required by the forty-eight legislatures. The typical number for any one state is about twelve. The most frequent occasions for such holidays or special celebrations are the birthdays of national and state heroes, Arbor Day, Temperance Day, State Constitution Day, and observation of special events.

Far more important than these more or less random excursions into curriculum making are the laws which prescribe subjects. These curricular laws are usually general, often vague, and sometimes obscure. In many instances the schools do not know if a legally required subject is to be taught in the elementary or high school. The laws are also uncertain as to whether the subject is to be *offered* or *required*. It is clear, however, that 34 states require by law the teaching of American history in the elementary schools. By law 41 states require the teaching of the Constitution of the United States; 23 require the teaching of the state constitution; and 28 require the teaching of civics. The level at which these last three requirements are to be placed is not clear in every case. In the absence of a specific statement that the required topic shall be taught in high school, it has been interpreted as an obligation of the elementary grades.

Other topics which are required by law, mostly in the elementary grades, relate to patriotism, the flag, safety, fire drills, democracy, cooperatives, temperance, Americanism, "The Star-Spangled Banner," and the Bible. State history is required in many states. Several character traits, such as obedience, honesty, justice, respect, kindness, tolerance, and love of parents are also the subjects of statutes. A few laws deal with textbooks and other teaching materials.

The making of the curriculum by legislatures is poor social policy and intolerable from an educational standpoint. It is bad social policy because the laws are generally passed in response to the demands of some articulate minority or pressure group; they are seldom the will of the people. Such laws interfere with the orderly development of the curriculum. By singling out particu-

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lar topics, subjects, persons, and occasions for special emphasis, they inevitably imply a neglect or minimization of others. The making of a curriculum is difficult, even for educators, and when it is made by untrained legislators in a piecemeal and sporadic fashion the result is bound to be confusion.

There is a proper sphere for legislation with respect to the school programs. It is proper and even desirable for legislators to state objectives. They may with propriety and fitness declare the purposes of the school. For example, they may declare patriotism, civic competence, the ability to read and write, respect for law, understanding of the Constitution, etc., as desirable objectives. There they should stop and allow educators to find the materials and contents best calculated to achieve these purposes.

Objectionable as these curricular laws may be, their very existence is strong evidence of the importance of the social studies. The field is invested with a kind of public interest which applies to no other field. The social studies teacher can rejoice that she is dealing with living issues.

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Describes intercultural activities of the elementary pupils in Deming, New Mexico, and presents the plan for a unit on UNESCO.

FIRTH, CATHERINE B., *The Learning of History in Elementary Schools*. London: Kegan Paul, 1929.

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GORMAN, FRANK H., "Teaching Conservation in the Elementary Schools," *Social Education*, 12:73-76, February, 1948.

Suggests suitable topics in conservation for various grades. Describes four principles to apply to teaching conservation.

HANCOCK, RALPH, "Let's Look at Latin America," *Childhood Education*, 20:354-355, April, 1944.

Describes ways of promoting a better understanding and a greater appreciation of Latin America.

HORST, HELEN, "Developing International Understanding in the Elementary School," *Social Education*, 12:123-125, March, 1948.

Describes how sixth grade pupils established contacts with eleven foreign countries.

KLEE, LORETTA E., "As the Twig Is Bent," *Social Education*, 13:163-165, April, 1949.

An account of how one teacher promoted international understanding by utilizing the cultural contributions of a Filipino and a Chilean who were members of a second grade class.

MOORE, C. B., and WILCOX, L. A., *The Teaching of Geography*. New York: American Book, 1932.

A brief, inclusive, but concrete discussion.

THE SOCIAL STUDIES IN ELEMENTARY EDUCATION

NATIONAL SOCIETY FOR THE STUDY OF EDUCATION, *The Teaching of Geography, Thirty-Second Yearbook*. Bloomington: Public School Publishing Co., 1933.

This extensive and inclusive book deals with curriculum and methods. Reports many special studies. In spite of its age it continues to be exceedingly useful.

RANSOM, JAY ELLIS, "Introducing the Study of Primitive Cultures at the Elementary School Level," *Elementary School Journal*, 51:86-88, October, 1950.

Would replace the present teaching of early cultures, based upon sentimentality and myth, with a realistic study of information and scientific facts found in archeological and anthropological source books. Children find such a study more interesting and meaningful.

United States Commission for UNESCO, *The Treatment of International Agencies in School History Textbooks in the United States*. Washington: Department of State.

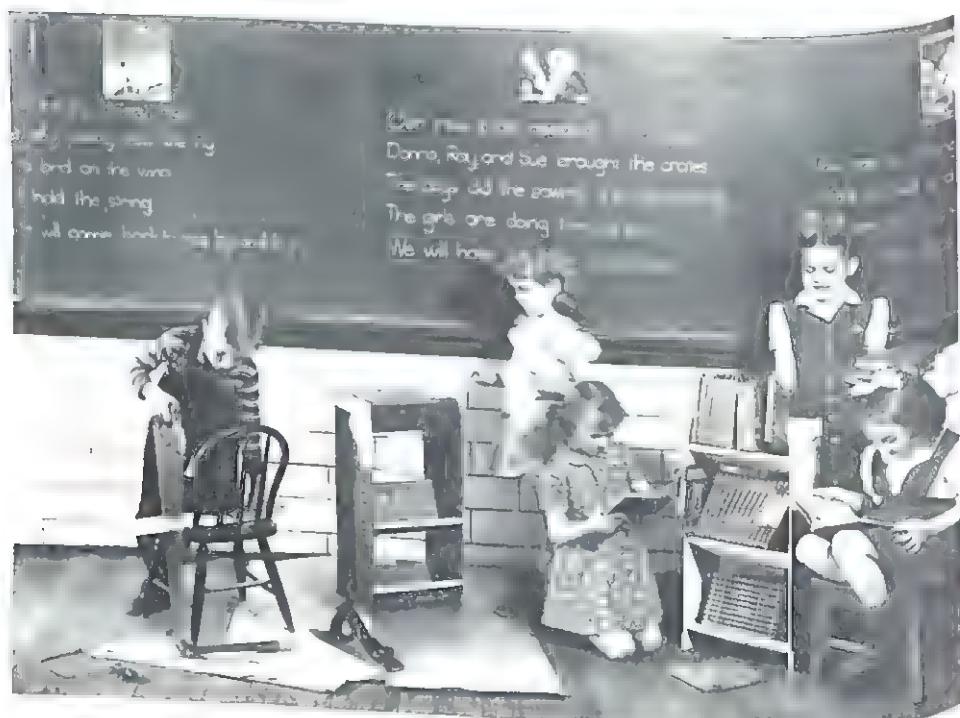
One chapter deals with the textbooks of the middle grades. Contains many concrete recommendations for greater attention to world agencies.



ONE OF THE MOST IMPORTANT TRENDS IN THE SOCIAL STUDIES IS THE INCREASING EMPHASIS UPON FOREIGN COUNTRIES AND INTERNATIONAL AGENCIES.



INDIVIDUAL EFFORTS PROMOTE THE DEVELOPMENT OF CONFIDENCE AND ASSURANCE WHICH ARE SO NECESSARY TO SOCIAL GROWTH.



THE SOCIAL DEVELOPMENT OF CHILDREN IS PROMOTED BY GROUP PLANNING AND COOPERATIVE EFFORTS.

4. SOME SPECIMEN PROGRAMS

VARIETY AND SIMILARITY IN PROGRAMS

The student of social studies programs is first impressed by the inconsistencies and divergencies among them. The terminology is overlapping, inconsistent, and contradictory. Such words as *theme*, *process*, *area*, *function*, *concept*, *problem*, and *life situation* vary so much from program to program as to defy specific definitions. Program makers do not agree as to the proper function of the social heritage and of content; they repeat topics at various grade levels; and they cannot agree as to the extent to which children should study current problems.

The student of social studies programs is also impressed by widespread and fundamental agreements and similarities: (1) In spite of variations in terminology most program workers utilize such basic processes as "making a living," "conserving life and health," and "transporting goods" as criteria for determining essential content. (2) Most programs utilize the principle of widening horizons to determine the sequence of materials. The "widening" is regarded as geographic, political, historical, economic, and social. As the child matures he reaches out for new areas, experiences, and contacts. (3) Most programs accord a large sphere of activity and freedom to pupils and teachers. The study of child development is having a modifying influence upon traditional programs and methods. (4) Most programs are broadening their scope by including more materials on contemporary world affairs, with particular attention to the United Nations and its agencies, to foreign aid programs, world resources, and military affairs. (5) Inconsistent as it sounds, in view of increased attention to foreign affairs, social studies programs are also increasing their emphasis upon American life, both local and national. American history is receiving more attention than in

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any past period, and American institutions are being studied in comparison and contrast with foreign institutions. (6) While the unit method was never faithfully followed in elementary schools, the unit organization is almost universal. (For a further discussion of trends see Chapter 3.)

SPECIMEN CURRICULAR OFFERINGS

Many states, cities, and counties issue general courses of study, service bulletins, guides to teaching, and programs for particular subjects or fields. Those in the social studies abound in helpful features. The underlying social and educational philosophy is often set forth with clarity and vigor. The main results of the scientific study of child development are stated, and lists or charts of the growth traits and characteristics for various ages are sometimes included. The objectives are frequently stated in terms of purpose and also in terms of expected outcomes, such as skills, information, attitudes, and behavior. Many programs contain suggestions on provisions for individual differences, suggested activity lists, and a catalogue of community resources. The wealth of materials—reading matter, visual and auditory aids, supplies, and equipment—are frequently indicated. Suggestions as to methods and procedures are numerous and practicable. Scores of ways of evaluating are described and presented. Consequently, many of the programs are storehouses of professional information and guides to improved teaching.

An extensive presentation of these programs would consume more space than is available in this book. Hence the excerpts chosen are designed primarily to present a picture of curricular practices and trends. By examining these selected portions the reader can secure a fairly adequate view of the scope, range, and contents of current social studies curricula. One can also see something of the similarities and differences of the various programs.

In examining these excerpts it should be remembered that only portions of any program are presented. Before drawing any conclusions as to the total merits or limitations of a particular program, one should secure a copy of the entire bulletin or course of study.

Most current social studies programs indicate the following four aspects of the curriculum:

1. Principles of selection, such as functions, concepts, problems, themes, or processes
2. Frame of sequence or grading, the dominant one being the widening areas of children's experiences
3. Nature of content, such as subject, topic, historical period, or geographical area
4. Suggested units, often more than can be utilized in a particular grade

The following pages present portions of various programs to illustrate each of the above features.

I. PROCESSES

Battle Creek, Michigan

1. Providing for health and safety
2. Producing and consuming goods and services
3. Understanding and improving social organizations
4. Communicating ideas
5. Participating in home and family living

Minneapolis, Minnesota

1. Making a living
2. Contributing to home living
3. Participating in group living
4. Conserving life and health
5. Expressing esthetic and spiritual impulses
6. Engaging in recreational activities
7. Engaging in educational activities

Long Beach, California

1. Conserving human resources
2. Conserving material and natural resources
3. Securing raw material
4. Producing commodities
5. Transporting and exchanging goods
6. Consuming goods
7. Rendering and utilizing services
8. Communicating
9. Cooperating in social and civic action

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10. Securing an education
11. Expressing and satisfying aesthetic needs
12. Expressing and satisfying spiritual needs
13. Enjoying recreation
14. Discovering and developing new knowledge
15. Living in the home
16. Getting a living

2. SEQUENCE OR GRADING

Arkansas

GRADE	I Home and school life
	II Immediate community life
	III Expanded community life
	IV Adaptation to environment
	V Enriched living by controlling plants and animals
	VI Adaptation to advancing physical frontiers

Texas

GRADE	I Home and school
	II Neighborhood
	III Community
	IV Differing communities
	V Our nation a community
	VI Texas a part of the world community

Philadelphia

GRADE	I Home and school
	II The neighborhood
	III The wider community
	IV The city
	V The state and nation
	VI The world community

Yolo County, California

GRADE	I School and home
	II Neighborhood and community
	III Community living
	IV The expanding community
	V Man's needs and earth's resources
	VI Modern production and distribution

- VII Contrast with prescientific man
- VIII Democracy, its growth and action

3. NATURE OF CONTENT

Minnesota, 1949

GRADE

- I Adjusting to the immediate environment
- II Sensing one's need for community helpers
- III Discovering ways of meeting our basic needs
- IV Discovering ways of living
- V Improving ways of living in the United States
- VI Minnesota life
- VII Utilizing our heritage for world citizenship
- VIII Utilizing our heritage for national citizenship

Los Angeles County, California
(Phraseology somewhat abbreviated)

KINDERGARTEN Home, school, and neighborhood

GRADE

- I People and physical environment of children's neighborhood
- II Production and distribution of basic foods in children's vicinity
- III Community life in a large Los Angeles County community
- IV How the people of California live
- V Colonization and territorial growth of the United States
- VI World interdependence through communication and transportation
- VII How industry has changed life in a modern community
- VIII The story of democracy

By examining twenty-one programs Burress¹ found that the following were the most frequent contents for the first six years.

GRADE

- I Home and school life of the child
- II Community helpers
- III Expanding community life
Ways of meeting basic needs
- IV Ways of living in many lands — type regions

¹ Burress, Robert N., *A Desirable Social Studies Curriculum for the Middle Grades*. Peabody College for Teachers, Ph.D. Thesis, 1951.

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V Western Hemisphere — emphasis upon United States
VI Eastern Hemisphere — emphasis upon Europe

4. SUGGESTED UNITS ¹

River Forest, Illinois (Phraseology somewhat abbreviated)

KINDERGARTEN 1. Helping one another in the home, school, and community
2. Beauty, order and design in the outdoors

GRADE I 1. The kinds of houses we live in
2. What makes a house a home?
3. How does a family live on the farm?

II 1. How do we get our food?
2. How does transportation help our living?
3. What are our sources of clothing?

III 1. Protecting health and safety at home, at school, and in the community
2. Recreation at home, at school, and in the community
3. Duties and responsibilities to the home, to the school, and to the community
4. How do people help us with communication?

IV 1. Improving agricultural methods in order to promote progress
a. Areas of fruits and vegetables
b. Area of grains: the cereal crops
c. Area of animals
d. Other products and foods
2. Contributions by individuals and groups for the improvement of society

V 1. The growth and development of our community — River Forest
2. The growth and development of Chicago
3. Adjustment to the physical environment of the agricultural interior
4. Adjustment to the physical environment of the cotton belt
5. Adjustment to the physical environment of the manufacturing belt
6. Adjustment to the physical environment of the Rocky Mountain region

¹ An additional list or reservoir of suggested units is given in Chapter 14.

SOME SPECIMEN PROGRAMS

- VI 1. How modern production and distribution have influenced living
- 2. How modern machines have influenced man's way of living
- 3. International interdependence in the field of lumbering
- 4. International interdependence in the field of fuels
- 5. International interdependence in the field of metals

VII How democracy has developed and how it functions

VIII 1. Man's problems and his attempts to solve them

- a. Man's adjustment to his environment
- b. Conservation of natural resources
- c. Consumers in a changing world
- d. Utilizing the greatest resource — your life

*Philadelphia*¹

(The Philadelphia plan utilizes the principle of widening horizons as a basis for grading. The "theater of experience" for each grade indicates the general nature of the content. The lists of suggested units enable the teacher to choose those that seem most appropriate for her class.)

KINDERGARTEN

and

GRADE I Living at home and in school

- 1. Having fun together
- 2. My home
- 3. How mother helps us
- 4. How can we help at home?
- 5. People who help us in school
- 6. Caring for ourselves
- 7. Exploring our school
- 8. Caring for our pets
- 9. When company comes
- 10. Let's be safe

GRADE II Living in the neighborhood

- 11. Let's get ready for (the coming season)
- 1. Let's be good neighbors
- 2. How do we have fun in our neighborhood?
- 3. Many people help us in our neighborhood

¹ *A Guide to Social Studies in the Elementary School.* Philadelphia Public Schools, Curriculum Office, 1950.

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4. Plants and animals live in our neighborhood zoo
5. How can my family help my neighbors?
6. Helpers who come to our door
7. Signs in our neighborhood
8. Finding out about our neighborhood
9. Celebrating holidays in our neighborhood
10. Workers for health and safety

GRADE III The wider community

1. We need the farmer
2. Food from the sea
3. Many people help to build our homes
4. How do we get our clothes?
5. Where does our grocer get his products?
6. Wires and pipes join my house to the world
7. Plants and animals give us many things
8. People work and play together in our community

GRADE IV Living in our city

1. Everyone shares in city planning
2. Having fun in Philadelphia
3. Highways, waterways, and airways in Philadelphia
4. How Philadelphians are fed
5. The communities in our city
6. How do Philadelphians earn a living?
7. Philadelphia — birthplace of our nation
8. Being good neighbors in Philadelphia
9. Going to school in our city

GRADE V Life in our state and nation

1. People in Pennsylvania live in big cities, in small towns, and on farms
2. Pennsylvania today and in colonial times
3. How inventions have changed American life
4. The United States — a nation of neighbors from all parts of the world
5. The sections of our nation are interdependent
6. Life in American river valleys
7. Let's make democracy work
8. Spending a vacation in the United States
9. Our nation's natural resources help the world

GRADE VI Living in the world

1. Nations exchange goods and ideas
2. People need houses the world over

3. The United Nations builds its first home
4. Are we good world neighbors?
5. The airplane brings people closer together
6. Protecting and sharing the world's treasures
7. We are a world family
8. Our debt to the past
9. People everywhere celebrate holidays

Part 2

THE CHILD AND THE
TEACHER

THE CHILD AND THE TEACHER

derstand children. Nothing could be more presumptuous. Having outgrown the language, understanding, and reactions of childhood, the adult cannot reliably use his own dim and shadowy recollections as a basis for studying and training children. Better methods and contemporary specimens are necessary.

The study of children has been retarded and hampered by the assumption that they are little men and women. Thus immaturity has often been regarded as a defect rather than as a stage of growth. The adult recalls an occurrence, an attitude, or a perplexity of childhood from which he emerged successfully. Having forgotten the fears, uncertainties, and anguish of the period, he now tends to regard it as a time when problems were simple, life was secure, and joys were complete. Supposing that he remembers how he felt as a child, he is impatient with those who regard childhood as a problem, an uncharted area, a field of research and investigation. Recollections of childhood, like the recall of dreams or distant occurrences, are untrustworthy. Even if such recollections were reliable and detailed, they would have only limited applicability to children who are now growing up in such different environments. The teacher who realizes that she cannot assume that the child is like her former self, or the parent who recognizes that his own child is not a duplication of himself has made a discovery. Humility has replaced presumption. Having recognized that the understanding of children requires study and observation, such a person is on the road to wisdom.

The training of children is a complicated process. The parent, being an amateur and not a professional, may be pardoned for some of his ignorance about childhood and for his lesser offenses in the rearing of children. The teacher, however, is under obligation to study the characteristics of the children whom she is employed to teach. She is a professional person who learns her art, not wholly by practice, but also by extensive, intensive, and continued study. Fortunately some progress in the scientific study of children has been made.

NATURE OF RESEARCH CONCERNING CHILDREN

The older books on the nature and behavior of children were sincere and thoughtful but quite subjective. The contents were

based mostly upon recollections, random observations, some reasoning, and an active imagination. Some writers revealed shrewd insight and made keen analyses and helpful interpretations. Their findings have not been entirely superseded, but exceedingly little work in this field done before 1925 receives current recognition.

The techniques of research concerning children have been vastly improved, thanks to developments in the quantification of data which accompanied the rise of the scientific method in psychology and education. Standards of procedure, analysis, and interpretation were then ready for the study of infancy and childhood. Natural conditions of behavior were provided for observational purposes; observation itself was objectified and systematized; experiments were carefully planned and faithfully executed; conclusions were usually limited to the findings; and the general interpretations and applications were restricted to closely related or similar areas. While many of the studies were narrow in scope and restricted in significance, the aggregate results provide considerable guidance for teachers, parents, social workers, and others concerned with the welfare of children.

A few examples of some of the research procedures may be both interesting and assuring. Many investigators of the period of infancy have used maternity wards as a laboratory and recorded numerous details of the actions of infants and the sequence of the development of various traits. Studies of the growth of the use of words have enlisted the help of willing and capable parents and teachers. Instances of the appearance of aggression, conflict, cooperation, sympathy, etc., have been carefully charted by recorders who were unobserved by the children. Surplus blocks and toys were given to children to see whether they would seize and conserve a supply or whether they would draw them from the stock as needed. These are a few specimen techniques of the simpler type. Many and more complicated procedures and analyses have been employed in great numbers. Even if one is inclined to minimize the significance of a particular study, he can often find other studies of the same problem to which he can give credence.

Research studies concerning children have thrown considerable light on infancy, early childhood, and adolescence. The period

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from six to twelve years of age has been studied less extensively than the earlier and later periods, although even this stage has been illuminated to some extent. Physical growth and the development of routine habits and motor skills have been charted and described. Emotional traits, such as fear, anger, jealousy, pleasure, affection, and sympathy, have been observed and analyzed. The evolution of interests, intelligence, imagination, understanding, reasoning, ideals, and vocabulary has been studied and to some extent charted. And most important of all from the standpoint of the social studies teacher, several significant studies of the social growth and behavior of children have been made.

TEACHER TECHNIQUES FOR CHILD STUDY

While every teacher should review the literature on child development, that alone is insufficient. While many school systems provide very useful charts, showing the typical traits and characteristics for various ages, they too are insufficient. To these aids and guides should be added systematic observations by the teacher. By thus combining general findings and concrete observations, teachers can achieve a sense of the realities of child development and an insight into the implications for curriculum and method.

Nearly every technique of measurement has value in study and appraising children. The major purpose here, however, is not so much to measure children in terms of achievement or ability, as to identify their interests, observe their activities, and understand their attitudes.

In the typical school the teacher has available a number of test scores, school marks, medical reports, and behavior records. These should be studied and utilized. They will usually give such information as (1) a general idea of the socio-economic background, (2) the intelligence quotient, (3) marks in the various grades, (4) health reports, and (5) any unusual problem of behavior. There is no need to collect these data again; the obligation of the teacher is to utilize such information about his pupils as is already available. Having conscientiously gathered all that is recorded, he is then in a position to see the direction in which additional and more current data should be collected. He can

then devise new observation techniques and enrich his understanding of the interests, experiences, and attitudes of the pupils. Some of the following suggested techniques may be useful, and many others can be devised by the resourceful teacher.

1. **SOCIOGRAM.** A simply devised test in which the pupils are asked to name the three or four other pupils of the class with whom they would most like to work (play, take a trip, serve on a committee) will provide data for a sociogram. Assign numbers to the pupils and arrange the numbers in a concentric sort of pattern, with the ones having greatest frequency near the center. The ones less frequently mentioned will be toward the fringes, and those not mentioned at all will be isolated beyond the pattern. Boys and girls may be identified by using squares and circles. The network of affinities may be made more vivid by drawing connecting lines that show for whom each pupil voted.

This relatively simple device will reveal a great deal about the interrelations of the pupils. It may be repeated, using different situations as the basis for affinity. While it will ordinarily reveal few surprises to the teacher, she may occasionally be led to ponder why Jack, the aggressive, somewhat headstrong boy, is so near the center, and why Joan, lovable and demure, is nevertheless a "fringer," and why Bill who makes high marks is a complete "isolate." The sociogram thus becomes a sort of photograph of the social relations of children.

2. **COMMUNITY ADJUSTMENT.** With the help of the pupils the teacher can make a relatively complete list of the institutions, museums, parks, theaters, stores, stations, elevators, etc., which are available to the pupils. In many school systems such a list is already available. In such case the teacher may need to edit it in order to delete items that are too complicated for the grade involved. The criterion for inclusion of an item should be its educative value. Discuss a few outstanding items on the list and have some of the children tell what they saw and learned by visiting the places. After the situation is clear, ask each pupil to check the ones he has visited. As would be expected, some children from poorer homes will have been unable to visit some of the places. More unusual, however, the results will show that children from favored homes have been unaware of some of the

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obvious points of interest ; they will have gone to distant places and have neglected their own community. An investigation of this type in one large city showed that the middle group in achievement were the best informed concerning their community. While this inquiry is designed primarily to ascertain pupil experiences, it may have other values, such as providing ideas for field trips, and expanding the range of pupil interests.

3. TRAVEL RANGE. Ask the children to bring road maps on which they have marked the limits of their travels. A study of these will show where kinfolks live, where vacations are spent, and the objectives of occasional sight-seeing trips. This inquiry will show the areas most frequently visited and will provide the basis for many kinds of activities. An exchange of this information among the pupils will promote a variety of interests and new centers of common experience. One such inquiry in a Minneapolis school showed that nearly every pupil had visited the northern lakes and woods but that scarcely any of them were familiar with the rich dairy and farming region just south of the city.

4. SOCIAL ACTIVITIES. Ask the pupils to list the organizations, clubs, and groups of which they are members, and to describe their activities in them. The results will be revealing as to the number of contacts which they have beyond the school. This inquiry will help to identify the "isolates" and "fringers" as well as the ones who are socially adept.

5. INTERVIEWS. By personal interviews with pupils, parents, counselors, and acquaintances the teacher can extend her understanding of each child and supplement or correct impressions which she may have derived from class procedures. From interviews one can also learn more of the home environment and of special situations that may affect the child's behavior and performance.

6. ANECDOTES AND COMMENTS. Ideally the school should provide a folder concerning each child, one that is passed on from grade to grade. Into this folder or packet should be dropped the informal little comments about his activities and reactions. The sum total of these remarks would soon constitute a revealing in-

dex of his personality and achievements. In the absence of such a collection the teacher of a single grade can nonetheless start such a record. Under this heading might be placed the list of extracurricular activities — those which fall beyond the classroom procedures.

7. SPECIMENS OF WORK. While it would be impracticable to preserve all the drawings, maps, and reports that are produced, the teacher who preserves a few can discern new directions of interest and can estimate the rate of progress. If these specimens are labeled and dated they constitute a significant record of performance.

8. READING RECORDS. A list of books read constitutes a revealing index of the child's habits and interests. With the help of the librarian the teacher can ascertain the extent and range of the pupil's reading. Such information gives the teacher opportunities to recommend other and different materials.

9. CASE STUDIES. Pupils who depart markedly from the norm may deserve special study. The information available may not explain why Melvin lags behind his indicated capacities, and Susan seems to outrun her predicted achievement. Unusually bright pupils deserve special attention as well as those who constitute behavior problems or problems of nonperformance.

10. PARENT CONFERENCES. Teachers and administrators have found that conferences with parents lead to better understanding of pupils. Some schools have systematic schedules for these conferences and a list of the information which has been found helpful. The values for the children and for public relations of these conferences are obvious.

The foregoing list of techniques for child study could be easily expanded, but the resourceful teacher will see how to adapt those mentioned to particular groups and how to devise others. All such techniques should be directed toward a better understanding of a particular group of children — both as individuals and as a group. Such studies should result in better units, more fruitful field trips, better rapport, clearer understanding, better citizenship, and more satisfactory progress.

SOME SOCIAL CHARACTERISTICS

It is difficult to isolate characteristics which are wholly or even primarily social. The acquisition of a language is clearly an accompaniment of social development. In fact, a vocabulary and the ability to communicate with others are indispensable prerequisites to understanding society and making adjustments to it. Equally fundamental, perhaps, are the cultivation of affection, sympathy, and pleasure, and the control of anger, fear, and jealousy. Clearly, the emotions are intertwined with and affect social development. In spite of the overlapping of these elements, however, it is possible to discuss some characteristics which are largely social.

In the development of the child *social* and *individual* are not antonyms; they are complements. As a child grows older he becomes more social; he accepts and seeks human association. In his contacts with others, however, he also develops a greater awareness of himself. It is, of course, desirable that he achieve a balance between himself and society. Since society itself, however, is forever seeking the desirable balance between individualism and social control, it is not surprising that the child sometimes has difficulty in finding the correct formula.

The acquisition of social characteristics is a gradual process. Some of the typical steps may be indicated. At the age of five months the baby begins to distinguish between a friendly look and a reproving tone, between one person and another. Shyness, timidity, and fear develop at about the same age. At the age of ten months the baby can participate in such social activities as waving good-bye, squealing for attention, and hiding his face. While infants show few signs of interest in one another, by the age of two years they make some social responses, although their activities are likely to be separated and parallel rather than merged. From three onward, the child group becomes larger and the duration span of attention becomes longer. In this stage the child may participate with one group and be simply an onlooker with another. If he matures more rapidly or more slowly than his companions, the tendency toward isolation becomes stronger. At the age of six the capacity for group

action is still quite limited, although he can participate in simple, loosely organized games. Thus children in Grade I are not likely to form a very closely knit unit. Such leaders as emerge have very small followings. As pupils advance up the grade scale, however, they form larger and larger groups. By the time they have reached Grade IV the class is often an integrated group which enlists the loyalty and support of all the children. At Grade VI many pupils are cognizant of the interests and ideas of others; they begin to form ideas of the traits and characteristics which they like or dislike. They also become aware of some of their own qualities and are capable of a limited amount of self-criticism.

Whether this process is an emergence of natural potentialities, similar to the development of walking, or whether it is a learning process which can be largely determined by parents and teachers is a disputed point. Some studies tend to show that social behavior has its own sequence of unfolding just as motor development has. Even this view must allow, however, for environmental influences. Without a social setting there can be no social behavior. The wilding children who are reared by animals have no "human nature" as long as they associate only with animals. Even if there is a natural sequence for the appearance of social characteristics, the social environment will determine which characteristics shall flourish and survive. Regardless of the merits of the arguments over this point, the teacher can be very sure that the social environment which she provides for the pupils is of determinative importance.

One social characteristic which deserves the attention of teachers is negativism, the tendency to refuse to comply with understood requests. To some extent it is a protective device of childhood. This feature often emerges in the later stages of infancy, rises in frequency to the age of three, and declines after the age of four. The decline after the age of four does not mean the disappearance of negativism; it may assume other forms, such as evasion, disputing, and willful failure to understand. Negativism may be accentuated or prolonged by needless and frequent commands or other forms of interference by parents or teachers. While it tends to decline before the school years, teachers should

be careful not to arouse and thus prolong this waning tendency. Its survival in adults is instanced in headstrong persons who automatically tend to deny whatever is said or oppose whatever is proposed.

The development of friendships among children has great social consequences, for it is a step toward larger loyalties. Very strong ties among children rarely develop before the age of four, and early friendships are based upon propinquity and convenience rather than choice. Later attachments are based upon similarities, such as age, height, intelligence, and interests, and very late in adolescence they sometimes seem to rest upon supplementary rather than similar qualities. Friendships often include a dominant and a submissive member, although rotation of roles is also common. Children who have many friends and enjoy popularity are usually better in classwork and in games and have better health than the less popular ones. Those who are solitary, meddlesome, or critical are frequently neglected by their associates.

Leadership is closely related to friendship. The leader is likely to be larger, better dressed, better looking, and more fluent, daring, resourceful, aggressive, and intelligent than his classmates. The gap between leader and followers must not be too great, however, for the highly superior child is sometimes rejected as a leader. The tendency to form gangs and clubs, in which leaders play very conspicuous roles, begins about the age of eight. There is much evidence to show that some of these groups afford very valuable training for leaders and members in giving and accepting orders, keeping promises, and respecting personal and property rights. The development of leaders does not imply abject submission to them, and the fact that leaders vary with the type of activity shows that children often have a discriminating sense of the necessary qualities for leadership.

Within and outside of gangs, the child is unconsciously trying to achieve a social status. He wishes to be accepted by his associates, to belong, and eventually to be recognized and given prestige. Outside the home he wants the same assured status which he has within it. The teacher and other adults can help him in his

efforts. By tact they can sometimes help the shy or unattractive child to be accepted and given an assured place.

The acceptance of social standards and codes of fair play is an important development. Up to the age of eight children seem to accept authority without a clear realization of the basic reasons for it. After that age they begin to formulate their own rules. "Boys must not tease girls"; "breaking windows is wrong"; and "pick on fellows your own size" are examples of the emerging standards which win acceptance. In the process of the development of social or moral standards four stages are discernible. In the first, natural penalties operate; in the second, adults hand out rewards and punishments; in the third, the child feels the approval or disapproval of his own group; and in the fourth, the principle or rule is abstracted and made general; in other words, the child has derived a moral standard which he accepts and obeys, even at the expense of his own interest.

The element of sex is important in the training of children. The development of its role seems fairly clear. Up to about the age of eight children are more or less unconscious of sex. Then follows a period of four or five years during which boys become "boyish" and girls become "girlish." Friendships across the sex line are tabooed. With the onset of adolescence a renewed interest in the opposite sex begins.

Boys and girls show some differences in social characteristics. Boys cease crying at earlier ages and become more militantly aggressive sooner than girls. Girls have more respect for school achievement and are more conscious of appearance than boys. Whether sex differences in social characteristics are due to natural or to environmental causes is an unresolved question. Whatever be the cause or causes, the teacher does well to note such differences as do exist and make the proper allowances.

COOPERATION AND CONFLICT

Because of their importance in human relationships, conflict and cooperation deserve special emphasis. Rivalry, competition, aggression, teasing, quarreling, and fighting may be regarded as *conflict*, and sympathy, loyalty, and friendship as variations of

cooperation. Interdependence is a condition which calls forth both conflict and cooperation, although it places a premium upon cooperation. Emulation contains elements of both rivalry and cooperation. No sharp distinctions among these terms are necessary or desirable.

Cooperation and competition are not opposite or antithetical; each partakes of the nature of the other. The child *cooperates* with his playmates in order that his room may *compete* with another room; and he *competes* with his classmates to uphold the level of the group performance. As a competitor an individual works for his own interests; as a cooperator he works for the interests of his group. The promotion of self-interest may be an advantage, or it may be a disadvantage to the group. When the promotion of group interests is of value to the individual, even his cooperation may be a kind of competition. One is not justified, therefore, in pronouncing cooperation good and competition bad; the two are too intertwined to justify such a simple either-or attitude.

Cooperation or mutual aid assumes varied forms. Children gradually develop an awareness of others and then an awareness of their needs, interests, and wishes. They learn to help smaller children, to take turns at play, to join in a group project, to serve on committees, to share possessions, to form friendships, to develop loyalties, and to accept and applaud others when they perform well, even in competition with themselves. They learn to sympathize with an injured playmate, to cooperate even with those whom they dislike, and to develop loyalties to the group, the school, and the community.

Cooperation is promoted by a number of forces outside the schools. Parents teach their children the desirability and necessity of cooperating with other members of the family. The services of the grocer, milkman, and postman are appreciated at an early age. First grade pupils begin to understand that a public library is a cooperative affair, and that firemen, policemen, and teachers are the employees of a cooperative society. In Grade II pupils make progress in understanding that government itself is a form of cooperation, even though it compels the compliance of the unwilling. As they ascend the grade scale, pupils appreciate

more complex forms of cooperation. Trade is a particularly good illustration of cooperation, even though its competitive aspects will also appear.

The concept of interdependence, but not the word itself, is easily grasped by young children. Foreign trade with its bananas, coffee, diamonds, and other products which are not produced in the United States is an appealing topic through which to develop the concept of interdependence. The division of labor, the need for communication and transportation, the very existence of cities, the work of professional people, and the general trend toward complexity in our economy when presented with suitable simplicity are suitable materials through which to develop an understanding of interdependence with its necessary concomitant, cooperation.

Competition also assumes many forms. The child competes for the affection of his parents; the pupil competes for the attention of his teacher. The pupil of the early grades works harder for himself than for the group, although this tendency can sometimes be reversed in the upper grades. The student competes in high school and college for honors, offices, rewards, prizes, and rank. And in the adult world competition is so omnipresent as to require no citation.

The tendency to compete is seldom a general characteristic of a particular child, although prodding parents and goading teachers sometimes develop a prevailing mood of competition. Normally, the child is more likely to select the areas and groups in which he will try to surpass other children; in other areas and activities he is frequently unmindful of what others achieve.

Many factors encourage competition. The goal of desire is itself a factor; rewards, prizes, and honors stimulate not only effort, but also rivalry, if not actual hostility; the salaries, offices, and opportunities of the adult world undoubtedly impinge upon childhood and begin to influence its ideals. The examples of older children, the teasing by bigger children, the nagging of ambitious parents, the admonitions of energetic teachers, and the success formula of our reading materials unquestionably stimulate competition. Competition is dramatic; it gains the headlines, whereas the daily routine of cooperation is not newsworthy.

Fortunately, many forces operate to check, regulate, and reverse competition. Children give the smaller contestant a handicap; the artificial nature of induced competition is sometimes realized, and the contestants desist in disgust. In some instances the rivals realize that their interests would be served better by cooperation and substitute it for rivalry.

Competition is not necessarily undesirable. When the contest is inevitable and the rewards are the natural results of success, competition becomes necessary and even desirable. Emulation, in which one person tries to equal another in achievement, seems like a desirable form of competition. As long as we live in a society of scarcity and as long as prizes, offices, rewards, honors, rank, and prestige are limited in number, there will be competition. Under such circumstances the acceptance of the principle seems to be the realistic choice. In fact, assuming that our society is destined to continue its acquisitive, aggressive, and competitive course, one is doing an actual injustice by failing to train the child in competition. School life abounds in situations in which the child competes with established standards, with his classmates, and with his own previous performance. Reading, writing, play, and practice in study skills afford opportunities for comparing performances. In such situations competition can be so guided that it is wholesome and helpful.

Competition has various effects upon children. Some competitors strive zestfully and yet achieve an objective, impersonal attitude. Others become selfish, tenacious, and determined, and when they succeed, they become complacent and smug. Some who are defeated in the race for high rank accept whatever measure of success comes to them and seem resigned or even contented. Others who lose out become soured, morose, cynical, or possibly spiteful and vengeful.

Many studies of the relative frequency of conflict and cooperation have been made. The results seem to indicate that the disposition to cooperate is just as persistent as the tendency to compete, and that the instances of observed cooperation far outnumber the instances of conflict. Thus children, either by nature or training or by a combination of both, are more ready to cooperate than to compete. Kropotkin and others have reported that the

greater frequency of mutual aid over conflict holds true among animals as well as men.

This general result is of great significance to social studies teachers. In a culture which refers to "the survival of the fittest" and "the struggle for existence" five times as often as it does to "mutual aid," "cooperation," and "interdependence," it is somewhat surprising, and possibly heartening, to be assured that the basic tendency of children is to reverse the order of the frequency of these concepts. If the children of an acquisitive, aggressive, and competitive society are naturally or by training inclined toward cooperation, adult society could be radically modified merely by allowing the childish characteristic of cooperation to continue into adulthood. The adult, however, rather than the child, is usually regarded as the norm, and many pressures operate to transform the cooperative child into the competitive adult.

From this brief summary of the social characteristics of children it is evident that the normal child exhibits a wide range of behavior. He is individual and social, cooperative and competitive, unconcerned and sympathetic, angry and helpful, hostile and friendly, wayward and persistent, listless and energetic, and disdainful and fond of the opposite sex. In brief, the child is a human being.

BASIC FACTORS IN SOCIAL DEVELOPMENT

The social development of children is conditioned by a number of basic factors. These factors are more or less constant in their effects and tend to set the limits within which social development occurs. The teacher should identify and recognize these basic factors and endeavor to secure as much information as possible about each pupil with respect to each of them.

1. **HEALTH.** Health is a prerequisite to the development of normal social relations. Disease and physical handicaps seriously interfere with the growth of a personality and with the achievement of status among associates. Fortunately, many schools are providing adequate health services for pupils and the teacher can rely upon the intelligent cooperation of nurses and doctors to remove or lessen the obstacles that arise from poor health.

2. INTELLIGENCE. General ability correlates positively with such characteristics as honesty, cooperation, leadership, and self-reliance. Consequently the teacher can expect more rapid, even though not necessarily more complete, social development among the more intelligent children. In the growth of a particular child, however, social intelligence sometimes outruns other qualities; so the correlation between intelligence and social growth, while positive and general, is subject to some irregularities. The bright child has a larger vocabulary and more fluency, and so can meet some social situations more adequately than his less capable associate. Also the bright child is likely to be less dependent upon adults and to demonstrate more resourcefulness and originality. While intelligence is no guarantee of eventual social adjustment, it is a positive potential that can be realized when the environment is suitable.

3. SOCIO-ECONOMIC BACKGROUND. An important but by no means consistently determinative factor in the social development of children is the socio-economic background. Whether wealth is correlated with virtue and intelligence need not be debated, but children from more favored homes seem to have some advantages among their associates. Long residence and an achieved status by adults seem to affect the status of the children from such homes. While this influence is more pronounced at the high school level it is discernible at the upper elementary level. Fortunately young children are quite unaware of some of the criteria of social status. To a child in the second grade, his father's strength is more admirable than election to public office, and a sandbox in the back yard compensates for the lack of a Cadillac in the garage. The children of the primary grades are generally unmindful of the quality of their neighborhood, the occupational status of their fathers, or the significance of the family income. While all these elements will become important, their effects are temporarily suspended. The differences among children because of varying socio-economic backgrounds, however, are not uniform in direction or extent. There are too many variables and too many exceptions to justify a teacher in regarding this factor as the sole determinant or as a reliable index of social development.

The socio-economic status affects and limits the social develop-

ment of an individual child just as the total culture affects and limits the population as a whole. Similarly, as a whole people may expand their culture and burst the limiting bonds, so an individual may expand beyond the limits of his socio-economic setting. In fact, it is the teacher's duty to see that, as far as possible, the limitations of a restricted background are removed, and that the advantages of an enriched and cultivated background are fully utilized.

4. GROWTH. Social development is intimately related to and conditioned by the stage of maturation. Study after study shows that children acquire skills, vocabulary, understanding, emotional traits, cooperation, sympathy, and leadership in proportion to their age (see Bibliography). Thus the teacher has a fairly constant and reliable index to what she can justly expect from a particular pupil. Naturally, maturation does not negate other factors. A ten-year-old may not excel an eight-year-old in a particular achievement, but it is fairly certain that the ten-year-old exceeds his own eight-year-old performance. Since maturation is such a sure instructor the teacher can often afford to wait for its help.

5. CONTINUITY. Just as plants require steady and careful nurture, so do children. Parents who maintain an even, steady consistency in the training of their children are providing a highly important component, one that helps to bridge the gaps of change and growth. The concept of continuity presents no difficulties to the social studies teacher, for she realizes that there have been no sharp breaks in human history; ancient, medieval, and modern and colonial, revolutionary, and republican are artificial divisions imposed upon events after their occurrence merely for convenience of identification and description. The development of industry, agriculture, the family, and government has followed a similar gradual course. In fact, evolutionary development with its unbroken thread of continuity seems to characterize society in all its aspects. It is therefore easy to accept the principle of continuity in child development.

All attempts to find sharply marked stages into which the majority of children can be fitted have failed. The child develops gradually in his motor and physical skills, in vocabulary, in

awareness of others, in his capacity to compete and cooperate, and in his understanding. In fact, the process is, for the typical child, almost an unbroken continuum. While development is a gradual and continuous process, each child advances at his own rate and according to his own pattern. A particular child may be out of line with others of the same age. So teachers cannot set levels of achievement and justly expect a child to reach them at a particular age. Each child must be studied and evaluated in the light of his own pattern and rate of development. No sudden or revolutionary advances by classes or individuals should be expected.

6. INDIVIDUAL DIFFERENCES. The fact that every child will come in contact with children of varying qualities and abilities markedly affects his adjustment. He soon learns that other children do not react uniformly to his suggestions and proposals. He becomes aware of the fact that people are not all alike, and that even a particular person is not uniform in his behavior. The teacher knows in advance that whatever she tries to teach, whatever game she introduces, whatever trait she tries to develop will call forth variations in performance. These variations will reflect age, intelligence, socio-economic status, personality, and a complex of interests and experiences. It is frequently impossible to compound these variables and predict the performance of a particular pupil. These individual differences offer limitless opportunities for the teacher, for she could not imagine or create the diversity of interests, traits, and behavior which the operation of this principle provides for every classroom. The teacher should recognize clearly and accept cheerfully the existence of individual differences. Whoever expects pupils to achieve a uniform standard is doomed to disappointment.

7. INDIVIDUAL VARIABILITY. The range in performance and behavior of a particular individual is as great as that among different individuals. This fact is fully as important for the teacher as an awareness of individual differences. As a matter of practicality it is even more important, for it indicates almost endless possibilities for discovering interests, abilities, and characteristics. A particular pupil will not achieve a uniform level in all characteristics, just as he will not hold a uniform order among the

pupils. He may be a leader in the classroom but an observer on the playground, an aggressive talker but a timid fighter, good in history but poor in arithmetic, friendly with girls and hostile toward boys. In other words, he may exhibit a consistent deviation from consistency. Different tasks, assignments, and situations tend to develop varying characteristics; so it is not surprising that a particular pupil charts a variable course. While the unitary theory of intelligence seems to imply that a bright pupil *could* achieve a uniformly high level, the fact is that he seldom does. Factors other than intelligence prevent uniformity of achievement by an individual. The teacher who recognizes this principle of individual variability will not expect any pupil to excel in all areas; in fact, from the standpoint of social training she will rejoice that opportunities to excel are distributed among many pupils.

SOCIAL NEEDS OF CHILDREN

The social needs of children are numerous and varied. The principal ones can easily be identified, and to some extent supplied by parents, teachers, and groups. The needs described below include some that are emotional as well as social. They are continuing needs which should be provided throughout school years. They are the joint obligation of parents, teachers, interested adults, social institutions, and of society generally. They are not clearly separated one from the other but overlap in duplicate fashion.

1. AFFECTION. Among the earliest social needs of a child, affection is paramount; the adolescent continues to need this ingredient; and few adults can be happy without it. The realization that someone loves and cares is a reassuring and heartening thought. Doctors have gone so far as to say that affection is actually medicine for a sick body. The parent naturally and almost inevitably loves his child, partly because he expends so much thought and attention upon him. While the affection which a teacher has for her pupils differs from that of a parent, it should nevertheless include kindness, constancy, solicitude, and professional conscientiousness. Affection has become a greater need in a shifting and somewhat disorganized world, for these changes mean that few children receive much affection outside

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the home. It is therefore desirable that the school, being a residual institution, should supply the deficiencies which society has failed to provide.

2. SECURITY. Security in the early years consists of a sense of physical safety; a little later it grows into a sense of economic assurance. Blended with these primary aspects of security the growing child and the emerging adolescent feel the need of social security in the sense of steady, unwavering care and affection. Wrangling and bickering within the home, fractious and unpredictable behavior on the part of teachers or friends, and neglect by any associate disturbs the child's sense of security. The development of a normal personality requires that the child be assured of the continuance of his status.

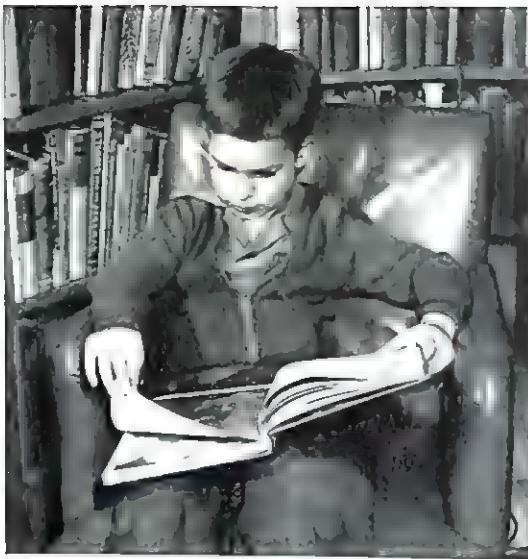
3. SELF-ASSURANCE. All of the social needs of children are not external. The need for self-assurance, while fed and nourished by circumstances, must be to a large extent self-generated. Having confidence in others, seeing them achieve their purposes, the normal child gradually perceives that he too is capable of undertaking and performing tasks. By the normal performances of their duties, by meeting situations with confidence and skill, adults unconsciously inspire children with confidence. As the child himself achieves tasks of increasing difficulty and complexity he gradually acquires the self-confidence that enables him to develop his full capacities. As noted below, this quality of self-confidence is closely interwoven with achievement.

4. ACCEPTANCE. Children need to identify themselves with groups. They need to feel themselves as integral members, accepted, desired, and needed. They want to be typical units of the gang, not to stand out as deviates. Social acceptability is not only an achievement or a reward, but a vital social need. To secure acceptance the child will conform, he will perform arduous feats, he will even do ridiculous and absurd things. While the adult may scorn some of these childish performances, he himself will wear uncomfortable clothes, engage in wearisome activities, and attend social functions in order to gain this coveted social acceptance.

5. SIMILARITY. Children, adolescents, and adults yearn to be like everyone else. In the animal world the extreme deviate is an ob-



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ject of pitiless persecution. While human beings use more restrained methods, they too persecute anyone who departs markedly from the established norms. Censure and disapproval are applied in all areas, such as manners, actions, and beliefs. Only the stoutest hearted can ignore these pressures. So it is perfectly normal for the child to want to be like his associates, to want to conform, to study to be like others. The desire for similarity is basically sound; it rests upon the realization, however dim, that common action requires the submergence of extreme deviations.

6. INDIVIDUALITY. While children want to be like their associates they also want to be themselves. This paradox is well exemplified in the adult world by the woman who wants a hat just like all the women are wearing, but she does not want a hat like any particular woman is wearing. The need for individual self-realization becomes stronger as the child advances in age. The parent or teacher who does not recognize this need will have some unpleasant experiences. It contains the force of a germinating seed, the strength of a growing tree. This urge can be called freedom, independence, individuality, or self-assertiveness. However it is labeled, it should be respected and guided, for it is the potential power of the strong, forceful adult.

7. PARTICIPATION. It is not enough to be a member of a group; the child must have a role. The psychologists have discovered that one learns by doing. For centuries children and adolescents have unwittingly perceived this principle. They learn how to become members of groups by performing as members. Observers learn something; participants learn much more and by participating they are promoting their own social development.

8. RECOGNITION. The youth needs to be a member of groups, to participate in their activities, to identify himself with them, and to develop his own personality. In addition to all these he also needs the approbation and approval of the group. Group recognition of a feat of physical strength, of a dramatic role well played, of a skillfully made model, of any personal achievement is not just food for vanity but a necessary element in personal and social development. Teachers can do much to promote the custom of giving generous recognition to those who deserve and need recognition.

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9. **FREEDOM.** Closely related to individuality, participation, and recognition, but going beyond these, is the need for freedom. Fortunate is the child whose parents and teachers recognize the limits of their control, who know when to allow the child to run the risks and dangers of freedom. The child senses the fact that the world is run by adults and against them his resentment is likely to grow unless he is accorded a measure of freedom. The teacher who does not insist upon his prerogatives, who sometimes defers to pupil opinion, is making a valuable contribution to child development. Freedom within law is a paradox of the adult world, and even the child needs some introduction to this unresolved problem.

10. **PRAISE.** Recognition should sometimes grow into overt and ungrudging praise. The old debate over the relative effectiveness of rewards and punishment is closed. Reward has won an uncontested victory. The desire for praise not only speeds the feet of the Olympic runner, it intensifies the efforts of every individual who hopes for social approval. The teacher who praises a student is giving him more than a fleeting reward; it becomes a reservoir of energy which grows with each expenditure. Sincere and timely praise is not merely the demand of vanity or conceit; it is a fundamental need in the normal growth of the adolescent.

11. **ACHIEVEMENT.** In order to secure recognition and praise the child must have the self-confidence necessary to achieve something worthy of such rewards. Finding projects and activities for the purpose of enabling students to achieve is an important function of the teacher. Empty and ephemeral roles which call forth only a passing approbation are insufficient. Achievements must have integrity and they must be of such a nature as to lead to the acquisition of permanent and transferable methods. Setting the stage for achievements is a fundamental obligation of the teacher.

12. **SCHOOL STATUS.** While the teacher can do nothing about the socio-economic background of the pupils, she can do a great deal to ensure equal opportunities in the school. School status need not duplicate social status. The school should be so organized and administered that it provides opportunities for every child

to have a fresh start, unhampered by the limitations of previous backgrounds. Several studies tend to show that status within the school is merely a duplicate of the status already achieved in the community; that the children from the prominent families secure the rewards, offices, and prizes offered in the school. These studies constitute severe indictments of the schools. Teachers should see that school status is not earmarked for certain students, but that it is a recognition to be won by those who meet the conditions, whether they have community status or not. Status in the broad sense, however, does not consist of rewards, offices, or prominence; it consists of the recognition of the possession of desirable social qualities. This kind of status can be achieved by all normal children, and teachers can do much to set the stage for those individuals who need desperately to overcome shyness and lack of self-confidence. Status is a vital ingredient of social development.

13. FRIENDSHIP. Probably no single factor is more fundamental in social development than friendship. It is a blend of personal and social elements. It cuts across the barriers of age, status, ability, and sex. It involves the interchange of loyalty, affection, and cooperation. Thus friendship introduces the requirement of self-devotion, enabling the individual to experience the satisfaction of self-denial and the ethical value of preferring others to himself. As the number and variety of friendships increase, they become more and more inclusive until finally by a series of repeated personal experiences the individual comes to understand society and the people who compose it. Friendships can be, as Francis Bacon demonstrated long ago, opportunities for exploitation, or they can be, as Montaigne explained, opportunities for self-development. The latter purpose is the one which is stressed in connection with social development.

THE DEVELOPMENT OF PERSONALITY

Everyone recognizes the importance of personality. It is the composite of traits, habits, attitudes, and ideas that each person has woven into a unified pattern. Personality is one's social stimulus ratio; it is the concept that one has of himself in his social setting; it is the composite of popular opinion as to his

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future behavior; it is the network of relations that exists between the ego and the rest of the universe. Personality is both individual and social. Individually it is closely related to *character* and socially it is very similar to *reputation*.

Since the development of a healthy, acceptable personality is so important it behooves the teacher to be mindful of hampering influences and of positive contributions. Unfortunately, many teachers have assumed a *laissez-faire* attitude toward the subject of personality development, either because they have given little attention to it or because they disclaim responsibility for it. In fact, some studies seem to show that teachers are unaware of personal maladjustments. Even more serious, they tend to regard offenses against the school code as the sole basis for judging maladjustment.

The teacher tends to regard disorder, tardiness, truancy, discourtesy, cheating, lying, stealing, and obscenity as more or less serious offenses against the school code. She should check her standards against those set up by mental hygienists, who regard extreme shyness, suspicious disposition, depressed moods, resentfulness, fearfulness, cruelty, discouragement, and sensitiveness as far more serious than violations of the school code. According to psychiatrists these symptoms are the indexes of either actual or incipient maladjustment which may become progressively worse unless some corrective steps are taken.

The contrast between the viewpoints of teacher and psychiatrist is strikingly illustrated in the trait of shyness. The shy pupil who causes no trouble is frequently praised by the teacher as a well-behaved boy or girl; she may try to help him and show him special kindness, but too often she does not regard the behavior as a possible symptom of maladjustment. On the other hand, the psychiatrist is much more likely to look on such a trait as a serious symptom that calls for full investigation.

Unless the teacher is sensitive to the characteristics of maladjustment, she is in danger of aggravating some of them. In her zeal for maintaining the standards of school behavior she may unwittingly do the child an injustice. Tardiness, for example, may arise from a home situation for which the child is not to blame. Even lying may evidence a background of pride or sensi-

tiveness. Thus the school offense may be much less serious than the underlying maladjustment which caused it.

The teacher can identify the more obvious symptoms of maladjustment, for some of them are quite tangible. The principal ones are twitching, fidgeting, making faces, stuttering, biting fingernails, queer breathing, nervous mannerisms, excessive day-dreaming, inferiority, and extreme regression. Naturally, the social studies teacher will not undertake to diagnose or treat a child, but she can read the more obvious symptoms and call on the doctor, psychologist, or nurse for help whenever a child appears to require treatment.

The teacher can help pupils to develop wholesome personalities. The first step, of course, is to see that physical defects and illnesses are cured. Then, within the social realm the teacher should see that every pupil gets the proper ingredients for social development. The principal ones are affection, recognition, a sense of belonging, approval of classmates, praise, appreciation, and success.

Helping a pupil to develop a better personality is a complex and prolonged process. The teacher must provide him with reasonable tasks and let him have the thrill of achievement, even if it is temporarily a spurious kind of success. Then add praise and encouragement. If the teacher is successful the pupil will begin to face his problems realistically and slowly gain a measure of security and independence. He will gain self-control and eliminate some of his fears, worries, and anxieties. It is equally important to do everything possible to help the child to establish himself with his classmates and to achieve a reasonable similarity to them. In the process the teacher will help him to cultivate more and wider interests, which in themselves often serve as correctives to personality difficulties. The teacher cannot expect to transform personalities rapidly and completely, but she can by intelligent and tactful methods make a vital contribution to their natural growth and development.

IMPLICATIONS FOR CURRICULUM AND METHODS

The foregoing sections have summarized some of the pertinent facts concerning the growth and development of children. In

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many instances the implications for the curriculum are obvious. For examples, since children of the primary grades are interested in *things*, it is futile to present abstract concepts; since children of the upper grades are capable of group cooperation, it is unwise to stress only individual performance. Thus the study of child development involves both positive and negative lessons. Possibly a guiding thread for the selection of activities can be provided by summarizing some of the specific trends in development.

1. *Growth in vocabulary from simple denotative concepts of things, persons, actions, and qualities to connotative concepts of relationships and abstractions.* This trend clearly indicates the need of the slow and gradual introduction of new words. While words themselves cannot be graded, their connotations will indicate their suitability or unfitness for a particular grade. Growth in vocabulary is one of the basic indexes of general growth. Helping pupils acquire new concepts is a major function of the teacher, and basic to their acquisition is a variety of experiences.
2. *Growth in the acquisition and use of information.* To a child in the primary grades a particular fact may be isolated; in the upper grades it should be an index to a whole body of interrelated materials. Patterns of significance should emerge and discrimination should be developed as pupils ascend the grade scale.
3. *Growth in the capacity to generalize.* Even a young child makes generalizations, but they are often invalid or so restricted in application as to be of little value. As he advances in school he gains in both the ability to understand and to make valid generalizations. He is thus acquiring a skill that makes study easier and results more meaningful.
4. *Growth in group skills.* The child who enters school is largely an individualist. As he associates with classmates, matures, and learns he develops a consciousness of others; he becomes socialized. Gradually he acquires status and takes delight in being a member of committees, teams, and clubs. This trend clearly indicates the selection of materials and activities that show increasingly the complexity of human relationships, that include more and more of the seamless web that holds modern civilization together.

5. *Growth in discussion.* From the personal and egocentric viewpoint of the young child to the objective, disinterested analysis of a mature person is a long and winding road. To follow it to the desired goal requires the constant guidance of a skillful teacher. Into this activity can be woven lessons concerning the nature of evidence, the value of authority, and the teachings of history.
6. *Growth in motor control.* As the child matures he can make more accurate drawings, construct models with a greater fidelity to reality, write more legibly, extend attention and work spans, and in general make greater progress in learning. The teacher of Grade II accepts and approves products that would be unsatisfactory in Grade V. Progress and not perfection, however, is the measure of achievement in this as in all pupil efforts.
7. *Growth in dramatics.* From make-believe play to the self-identification of socio-drama is a long line of development. Both are desirable, but the second is scarcely attainable by young children. The direction of growth is the clue for curriculum makers. Activities where dramatic play is suitable and necessary should eventually be succeeded by the realistic portrayal of national and world leaders.
8. *Growth in study skills.* Skill in finding materials, reading, interpreting, applying, constructing, and summarizing provides a continuous thread for selecting contents and activities. Fortunately the schools have achieved notable results in this area. Pupils today are far more skillful in the use of encyclopedias, references, and reports than were those of any previous generation.
9. *Growth in processes.* Elementary pupils acquire some permanent processes. The construction of maps, the preparation of booklets, the solving of problems, the planning of field trips, and the organization of a tea provide training in the acquisition of processes that are highly transferable to subsequent activities of a similar nature. Teachers realize the value of these processes and plan for repetitions on advancing levels.
10. *Growth in responsibility.* The normal child is dependent, but as he develops he ceases to need specific guidance. In fact, growth toward independence is one of the most reliable indexes of gen-

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eral growth. Thus the teacher who succeeds, paradoxically enough, becomes less and less necessary. As the child emerges into self-sufficiency, the teacher recedes toward dispensability.

These ten trends in social development are indicative of others that could be listed. These should serve, however, as suggestive and indicative of the nature, range, difficulty, and variety of materials, activities, and methods that will meet the needs of the developing child. Thus the student of child study almost inevitably becomes a student of the curriculum and of ways to merge it into the growth of the pupils.

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6. THE PROCESS OF SOCIAL LEARNING

EXPERIENCE — THE RAW MATERIALS FOR LEARNING

Without experience there can be no learning, but experience itself is not learning. Experience may or may not result in learning, depending upon the use that is made of it. Activity has frequently been equated with learning; "learn by doing" has become a favorite maxim; and "one learns what he does" is another statement of the relationship between experience and learning. There is general agreement as to the great importance of experience or activity in the learning process.

The necessity of experience and the values of doing deserve emphasis. By experience and activity one collects the raw materials which can, by association, organization, and integration, be transformed into complete and meaningful learning. Dr. Samuel Johnson observed that the persons who talked about what they saw at the time they saw it remembered it best. Here the eye, the tongue, and the ear reinforced each other to insure permanence. The scene was learned by seeing and by talking, two forms of doing. Tennyson has remarked that that which is unexpressed dies. Nietzsche has observed that "A man has no ears for that to which experience has given him no access." Countless illustrations of the value of overt, active, and purposeful "doing" in connection with learning can be cited.

There is no doubt that the concept of learning as doing and experiencing has had fruitful results in the classroom. Under it students have secured more freedom; motivation has been vitalized, methods have been enriched, and outcomes in behavior have been more discernible. This interpretation has been more productive than purely theoretical hypotheses and psychological expla-

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nations. These gains, however, should not obscure the limitations and inadequacies of the interpretation.

Those who regard the idea of "doing" or "experiencing" as the center of learning naturally give the word a broad and inclusive concept. Either of these words includes at least the following forms of doing or experiencing:

1. We learn what we see
2. We learn what we hear
3. We learn what we say
4. We learn what we write
5. We learn what we read
6. We learn what we think
7. We learn what we feel
8. We learn what we imagine
9. We learn what we draw
10. We learn what we undertake
11. We learn what we taste
12. We learn what we touch

This analysis of "do" shows something of its varied implications, for all the verbs indicate some variety of doing. The analysis demonstrates the necessity of qualifying the dictum that we learn what we do. It needs at least the following qualifications:

- (1) We do not learn all that we do.
- (2) We do not learn by one "doing."
- (3) We do not learn all about any one thing that we do.
- (4) Any particular "doing" may be incomplete or uncompleted.
- (5) Many instances of "doing" are random, unattended acts.
- (6) No form of "doing," such as seeing or saying, guarantees learning. Even if one does learn what he touches, smells, imagines, or feels it often has little or no social significance, for the learning cannot be identified or communicated.

Every individual accumulates a fund of varied experiences. He starts with things and persons within the family; he explores the house and comes in contact with every object therein; he hears sounds, tastes food, feels objects, and sees everything. He recognizes their diversity and tries to understand the names and functions of everything which he experiences. Throughout life one continues to add to the number and variety of his experiences. The range is never exhausted, even though one leads a very ordi-

nary and uneventful life. The fund of experiences becomes larger and larger; the storehouse, however, is never filled; the reservoir never runs over.

Valuable and indispensable as experience is, it is incomplete. Because it supplies the materials out of which learning eventually comes, some persons have regarded it as identical with learning. In some instances experience does seem to supply all the necessary elements and learning seems to be instantaneous and automatic. It may be almost instantaneous, but it is not automatic, for the individual must consider, evaluate, and resolve; he must do something with his experience before it is transformed into learning. If learning is defined as *the conscious modification of behavior*, it is obvious that the past with its storehouse of experiences is not learning: it only supplies the raw materials.

Experience does not furnish the means for its own identification; it does not contain or supply the means by which it can be described and transmitted. It is doubtful if it even supplies the means for its own recall and examination. Experience alone, unorganized, unevaluated, and unidentified, is like unmeasured and unused water which flows to the sea. Other steps are necessary in order to transform the contents of this ever-filling storehouse into the useful products of learning.

IDENTIFICATION OF EXPERIENCE

From the social standpoint experience which cannot be transmitted is meaningless. Unidentified and unlabeled experience cannot be expressed and that which is unexpressed dies. There can be no sharing of experience without words, which are the identifying labels that we attach to the elements of experience.

From the number of objects which the growing child encounters, let us, for example, select a toy horse. He plays with the horse and derives satisfaction from it, but he must have a word for it or he cannot call for it or talk about it. Until he has the word he cannot identify his toy for *social purposes*. While his experience with the horse may be individually satisfying without his knowing what it is called, to be socially significant he must be able to identify it *for others*. Actually, of course, the child heard the word *horse* as soon as the toy was unwrapped. He quickly

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learned to identify the object with the word. In brief, he *experienced* a horse and learned the identifying label for it.

Words have no magical qualities. Within themselves they have no meaning; they gain significance only because they are attached to elements of experience. Neither the word *horse* nor the sound made in pronouncing it has any significance. In fact, the object *horse* might as well have been a number. If the toy horse had been presented with enthusiasm accompanied by frequent repetitions of 1212, the child would very soon have called for his 1212. A horse is a horse and not 1212 merely because that is the label or identification ticket which society has attached to the animal. The identification of the horse is a socially significant achievement, because it enables the child to identify it for others.

The child learns a great many of the identifying labels which have been attached to objects, occurrences, situations, and ideas. Parents and teachers help the child in his efforts to label all the elements in his rapidly expanding world. Along the line he identifies *bridge*, *accident*, and *party*, but words denoting relationships and abstractions naturally come later. He learns to identify actions by appropriate verbs and qualities by suitable adjectives. No matter how hard he tries, however, experience outruns identification. Even with the help of the school, the process of identification lags behind the elements of experience for many years. In fact, there may always be a gap.

The process of identification is never complete. As long as one says "What is that called?" or as long as he uses a dictionary, he will continue to increase his stock of labels. The adult sometimes becomes satisfied and fails to see new elements in his experience; consequently his vocabulary ceases to grow, but ordinarily both experience and its identification expand as long as one lives.

Equal in importance to the identification of experience is the recognition of the fact that words, the identifying labels, are not very definite, exact, or stable. Consider the word *chair*. The child learns that the little piece of plain straight furniture which he uses at his table is called a chair. For him the word is absolutely restrictive; it belongs to his possession. But very soon he learns that the word is also applied to the big pieces of furniture

which the older members of the family use; a little later he hears it applied to the fancy little wicker on the porch, to the revolving piece in front of his father's desk, and to those pieces with rockers at their base. The child is confused and resentful; he thought the word *chair* was going to be definite, restrictive, and exact. He slowly realizes that he owns the chair but that he has to share the word *chair*.

The number of experiences is infinite, whereas the number of words is severely limited; consequently each word must be used to identify similar but not identical experiences. The child once thought that the word *dog* was a definite label, applying only to his little white dog. But through the years he learns that it applies to a great variety of black, brown, tan, spotted, big, little, and medium sized, short and long, low and high, hairy and woolly animals, all called *dogs*. Thus each word must serve many masters, and it must do whatever its user tells it to do. Words do not mean what they meant in the past, what the dictionary says they mean, or what they ought to mean, but what their users make them mean.

While one may regret the elastic, inclusive, and inexact nature of words, it is these very qualities that make communication possible. If there were sufficient and specific words for every experience, no one could in a lifetime acquire a vocabulary large enough for intelligible communication. Each word is a generalization, and so both speaker and hearer, writer and reader can meet within a general circle of meaning. If a speaker refers to a "big rock" he may mean a boulder the size of a bushel basket, and to the hearer a "big rock" may be one which is merely too big to throw. Yet in ordinary communication these slight discrepancies are not important.

As was mentioned above, experience usually outruns identification, but the opposite also sometimes occurs. When the pupil is asked to learn words in advance of the experience which they identify, they become *verbalisms*, words which float around unattached to the realities which they are intended to identify. Verbalisms are often useful; as a first step in identifying experience they sometimes serve a purpose by directing attention and unpreparing the pupil for the experience. But as they are only un-

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completed concepts they are also the source of misunderstanding. They normally become true labels, real words, but as long as they are only verbalisms, they interfere with learning and lead to errors. Teachers should try to transform them into significant concepts.

While words are inexact and sometimes misleading symbols, they are indispensable for communication and thinking. Although they are at least one degree removed from reality, they are often more economical and more expeditious than direct experience. They are the means through which vicarious experience is possible.

LEARNING THROUGH VICARIOUS EXPERIENCE

As a person speaks, he draws from his storehouse of experience and tries to pass a segment of it to his hearer. If the process is successful the hearer acquires a new experience. Suppose, for example, the speaker is telling about the time he was lost in the Grand Tetons. He describes the sheer cliffs, the big trees, the wild animals, the dark loneliness, the feeling of frustration, the hunger, the false road, and finally the welcome light from a distant house. The hearer, having never seen the Grand Tetons, having had no experience of being lost, will nevertheless now have these experiences as he listens to the speaker.

The success of an attempted transfer of experience depends upon several factors. The speaker and the hearer must cooperate. The speaker must be interested in telling about an incident in his experience; he must choose appropriate words; he must have a structure or a sequence; he must be willing to expand, modify, and repeat. The hearer must have in his storehouse of experience elements somewhat similar to those which the speaker utilizes; the hearer too must have a vocabulary, preferably one which contains all the words which the speaker uses; he must also be interested or at least receptive; and he must endeavor to follow what the speaker says. If these conditions prevail, the hearer will have a new experience.

Consider, for example, the incident of being lost in the Grand Tetons. As the speaker refers to "the sheer rocky cliffs," the hearer substitutes a cliff from the Ozarks and multiplies its

height. As the speaker refers to "the dark loneliness of the woods," the hearer pulls from his mental files a notation concerning his own experience in the pine woods of Georgia. As the speaker refers to "the utter fatigue of walking," the hearer has no trouble finding a parallel, one which will do without modification. As the speaker refers to "the wrong road," the hearer easily recalls a similar experience. From the standpoint of the hearer the whole process is one of selecting elements from his own experience, modifying them if necessary to suit the new conditions, and reorganizing them according to the pattern which the speaker presents.

It is sometimes said that direct experience is superior to vicarious experience, that it has a quality of vividness and reality which the latter does not have. This distinction is invalid. It is true that much of what is learned vicariously is vague and unreal, but many direct experiences are also flat, stale, and unprofitable. Variations in the quality of learning are due more to differences in interest, attention, and other factors which condition all learning than they are to the distinction between direct and vicarious.

Learning through vicarious experience opens the doors to limitless opportunities. It enables the pupil to have every experience in human history, if he has a background of similar elements, the vocabulary to understand the record, and the imagination to reconstruct his own experience in terms of the original. Thus the pupil can float down the Mississippi with Mark Twain, hunt Indians with Daniel Boone, cross the sands of Arabia with the Arabs, make shoes in Brockton, and gather coffee in Brazil. He can also avoid the discomforts, anxieties, and disasters which befell some of those who had the direct experiences.

Schools are organized to save children from some undesirable direct experiences and to make it possible to regulate and control the flow of those which will be meaningful and significant in their education. The artificially created environment with its planned activities is safer and more educative than the unregulated flow of random experiences beyond the schoolroom. Vicarious experience is, in many instances, preferable to direct experience; preferable because it is safer, quicker, controllable, and economical.

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And even more important, in vicarious experience the learner is in control; he can turn the dial; he can shut it off altogether and meditate and reconstruct. He can slow up or speed up the flow; he can soften or intensify it; he can repeat and observe again. In such situations learning accompanies vicarious experience, a result that is not guaranteed even by direct experience. As Franklin remarked, "Experience keeps a dear school, but fools will learn in no other." Regarding our children as far from being fools, we think they can learn from others, as well as from experience. We in America believe that it is possible for teachers to teach and for pupils to learn.

While learning through vicarious experiences can be economical, safe, expeditious, and thorough, it must not crowd out direct experience. Its success depends upon a wide and varied background, upon an adequate vocabulary, and upon the imaginative reconstruction of direct experience. Consequently the teacher should introduce and use vicarious experiences gradually. As pupils grow older the proportion of the materials which can be learned from others gradually increases, but the need for direct experiences will, of course, never disappear.

Vicarious experience enables the pupil to expand his limited, personal world beyond the furthest horizon; it enables him to see what he has never seen before, to hear what he has never heard before, to feel what he has never felt before, to learn what he has never known before, to understand what he has never understood before. It is the royal road to learning.

CONDITIONS OF LEARNING

The foregoing analysis of the learning process emphasizes the value of experience and its identification. It shows that learning is the reconstruction of experience. It is now appropriate that we examine the conditions under which the pupil will so reconstruct his experience.

Perhaps the most fundamental condition of learning is *interest*. The pupil must be interested in the material, subject, problem, or unit; this means that he must already know something about it. If he has no background which enables him to start, he is not ready for the material and so he can have no interest in it. The

teacher can stimulate an interest by providing new experiences that have a real connection with the proposed material.

The doctrine of interest has been extravagantly praised and harshly condemned. Its enthusiastic proponents have sometimes implied that the momentary whims and passing curiosities of children provide significant clues that should be followed by relevant units. Its harsh critics have regarded the doctrine of interest as soft pedagogy, the needless pampering of children, and the substitution of childish, ephemeral materials for permanent, socially significant tasks.

Both views are extreme. There is no mystery about the reality of interest, for without it no learning occurs. The teacher can develop and deepen interests by providing the necessary background of experience, by then using materials which explain, restate, and expand the elements of the activity, and by seeing that the pupils go further and further into the problem or subject. The teacher must have a deep and continued interest in the materials, for interests, like bad colds, are highly contagious.

A second condition of learning is *need or purpose*. Few adults will read a book, make a trip, or listen to a lecture unless they have some more or less well-defined purpose for doing so. Pupils are not any further removed from specific, personal motivation. They must sense the need of learning and be convinced that the proposed materials will meet that need. Unless the purpose for an activity is important to the learners the results are apt to be relatively ineffective. This fact places emphasis upon the value of self-directed activity on the part of the pupils in developing a purpose for the work to be done and in setting up plans by which this purpose may be realized. Such purpose and planning may arise both from individual and group action. The wise teacher will not hurry this phase of the learning situation. Instead, she will provide the opportunity, the materials, and the guidance through which the purpose and the plan may emerge and mature in the minds of the learners. Merely being told that they ought to know the products of South America, the name of the mayor, or the date of the admission of their state will not convince them. The realization of the need for knowing these facts and the way in which they will serve some purpose will be far more effective.

A third condition of learning is *meaning*. This condition is met when the pupil can understand how it ties on to what he already knows and when it contains materials that he recognizes as useful. Many experiments in psychology show that nonsensical materials are quickly forgotten, but that concepts, principles, generalizations, interpretations, and methods tend to endure. Unless the pupil sees meaning in his assignment, it is nonsense to him; it can scarcely be learned, and if it is learned in rote fashion it will quickly disappear. So the teacher will provide situations through which pupils may see wholes, gain overviews, and draw conclusions so that the materials may become significant and meaningful to them.

A fourth condition of learning is *fullness*. Important in all fields, this condition is especially so in the social studies. Relatively long and detailed narratives are easier to understand than brief summaries. Five pages devoted to the details of the westward movement are easier and more learnable than a summary of a half page. A long paragraph on the products of Spain is more meaningful than a catalogic list. A generalization or an insight can be acquired only by deriving it from relevant details. While it may be stated in advance as a guide, it can be appreciated only after the pupil himself has gone through a process similar to that which the original discoverer used. Fullness should not mean catalogic enumeration or tedious listings; it does imply extensive, relevant, and understandable material coherently organized and presented in an appropriate style. Cryptic, abbreviated, and condensed statements, no matter how profound, are antithetical to pupil learning. Brevity is not synonymous with clarity. For the sake of the pupils, teachers should insist upon fullness in textbooks, readers, and reference materials.

A fifth condition of learning is the proper *grading* of content. Meeting this condition involves adjustment between the pupil and what he is to learn. The key element from the standpoint of the pupil is *maturity* or *readiness*; the key element in the content is *difficulty*. The pupil should be mature enough to match the level of difficulty in the materials and have the prerequisites of necessary skills and understanding; if he is not, the content is improperly graded. The process of grading materials involves

adjusting them to both classes and individuals—a task difficult enough to challenge the most resourceful teacher (see Chapter 12).

A sixth condition of learning is a *sense of freedom* on the part of the child. Repeated studies have shown that compulsion, ridicule, and punishment, or the fear of them, interfere with or prevent learning. The teacher must provide an atmosphere in which the pupil can be natural, free from self-consciousness and constraint. He must be free to make at least some choice of the materials which he learns, to discover methods and procedures, and to make his own interpretations and generalizations. Under proper guidance he will make few fundamental errors, and what he does learn in an atmosphere of freedom and with a sense of his own responsibility will contribute far more to his mental development than the wisdom of the ages imposed upon him by a task-master.

A seventh condition, which is almost always present in the social studies, is awareness of *time and place*. While mathematics, much of science, and large portions of other fields operate independently of time and place, the materials of the social studies depend upon and involve time and place. Migrations of people start from a *place* and go to a *place*, and the movement occurred at some *time*. Coffee is produced in particular places; a people gained their freedom in a particular period of time; and a certain great leader lived in a specific area during a particular epoch of time. The significance of persons, events, inventions, trends, and movements depends upon their being located in both time and place. This condition does not mean that these two factors must continually be stated with respect to every particle of content; it does mean that the significance of realities in the social studies depends upon the setting and the time sequence. They must be implicit or explicit in studying all social materials.

THE TEACHER AND THE LEARNING PROCESS

The teacher has the responsibility of seeing that as many as possible of the conditions described in the preceding section are provided for the pupil. Other conditions over which she has even more control are described in this section. Directing pupils

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through the learning process is the function of the teacher. Her role is always important and often determinative.

The greatest contribution which the teacher can make to the learning process is to be qualified and competent. Fortunate indeed are the pupils if she has a pleasant personality with a high stimulus ratio. She then teaches by her presence as well as by her efforts. The teacher should be able to explain things clearly, to analyze and correct defects and errors, and to provide an atmosphere of freedom, naturalness, and purposefulness. It is also her function to see that the room is attractive, that materials are ready, and that a reasonable degree of order and system prevails.

The teacher can promote learning by providing numerous and varied activities. To learn, the pupil must be active. Pupil activity, pupil planning, and pupil responsibility are not just fads. They are the means employed in the modern elementary classroom that evidence a better understanding of how learning takes place. These practices enable children to become active learners rather than passive compliers in a teacher-directed classroom. Assuming then that the pupil is willing and ready to learn, let us describe some of the conditions under which the pupil will reconstruct his experience.

The teacher can promote pupil learning by merging study and discussion. The idea that pupils should study separately and recite in groups, giving the teacher the role of hearer, prodder, critic, and evaluator, is not based upon sound psychology. Instead, the time should be devoted to a judicious blend of reading and activities. During the activity discussion period the pupils will have opportunities to talk, to work in groups, to express their ideas, and to receive the stimulation which naturally arises from a social situation. Thus the pupils will learn during the discussion; they will receive help at the time it is needed and not after erroneous associations have already been established.

The teacher can promote learning by repeating and expanding the materials. The repetitions should seldom be outright duplications; new points, new illustrations, new aspects should be added, not only for the sake of interest, but because they promote an understanding of the concept, generalization, or principle which is at the heart of the materials. Mere repetition has little value,

whereas increasing the number of associations gives repeated opportunities for learning.

The teacher can promote learning through meaningful practice. The basic facts, skills, and methods should be reviewed at spaced intervals, and utilized if possible in new settings. Teachers have shown great ingenuity in making and in encouraging children to make games and contests which involve the recognition of familiar words, names, and facts in new connections. While direct repetition is seldom desirable, it does offer repeated opportunities for those who failed to make the proper association when the material was first presented; and by providing endless variation the ideas can be expanded and intensified for those who do not need the direct repetition.

The teacher can promote learning by the frequent use of praise. The long wrangle over the relative effectiveness of reward and punishment, praise and blame has been concluded. Research studies are almost unanimous in giving a very high rating of favorable over unfavorable recognition. The praise may be only a nod, a low "correct," or a smile of approval. Psychologically it is approbation which increases learning; the high marks, prizes, etc., are merely external evidence of the social approval which comes from being correct. Normal human beings desire commendation; they are even willing to learn in order to secure it.

As a corollary to the frequent use of praise one would naturally conclude that blame, censure, criticism, or punishment should be used seldom. Probably it is better never to use them. If the object is to promote learning, the teacher has no right to use punishment, for there is almost no evidence to show that it is effective, and abundant evidence to show that it is detrimental. Even the mild words "wrong," "incorrect," and "erroneous" evidence disapproval and so have a negative effect. Such punishment as is used should be immediate, directed specifically toward the error, directly proportioned to the seriousness of the error, and administered as impersonally as possible.

The teacher can promote learning by seeing that the pupils achieve success. The taste of success seems to leave an abiding flavor and a strong desire to repeat the experience. The pupil who has made a correct response is likely to repeat that response.

And even more important, he wants to continue to succeed with other materials. Success tends to become a habit. The teacher should therefore let pupils know when they succeed, and the sooner the better. Papers should be read and returned immediately, if possible. Since success and the knowledge of it are such powerful incentives to learning, the teacher should see that every pupil succeeds, and as often as possible.

The teacher can promote learning by providing for individual differences, by seeing that pupils of varying abilities have challenging assignments. The slow, backward pupil and the bright, versatile one are both entitled to special consideration. Each should be led to achieve up to the level of his capacity; each should have materials which utilize his whole ability.

The teacher can promote learning by providing for socialized, varied group activities. Not all teaching and learning are individualized — committees must learn to work as committees, a team as a team, and a class as a class. The playing of games, the singing of songs, and other activities in which the individual loses himself and becomes a part of a larger whole are necessary procedures in the social development of every child. The desirability of providing for every individual should not obscure the obligation to provide also for the class. And providing for the class is not merely the sum total of the provisions for the individuals. Just as society is more than the sum total of all individuals so the class is a group which is more than the sum total of all the pupils. The teacher should help each pupil to be himself and also to be a cooperating and unselfish member of his group, his class, and his school. (For additional suggestions on how to create a favorable learning environment, see Chapter 14.)

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Milligan defines education as "increasing the ability to meet situations by thoughtful use of experience." Experience has educational value in proportion to the readiness of the individual to understand and use it, and in proportion to the importance of the experience. If the person is not mature enough or sufficiently prepared, no worthwhile results will follow experience. Thought is defined as "the form of experience which increases ability to meet situations."

7. THE SOCIAL STUDIES TEACHER

THE ELEMENTARY TEACHER AND THE SOCIAL STUDIES

The term "social studies teacher" is not altogether appropriate when applied to the elementary teacher. She can likewise be characterized as a science, language, mathematics, art, and music teacher. In the absence of a more apt designation, however, the phrase "social studies teacher" as used in this book refers to the elementary teacher in her capacity as a teacher of the social studies.

A great deal is required and even more is expected of the elementary teacher. She is expected to understand society, have a wide and workable knowledge of all the fields, be conversant with the latest developments concerning child nature and growth, and be a master of methods. In view of these exacting demands it may seem unreasonable to expect her to read a special book devoted to the teaching of one field. When that field is the social studies, however, several reasons can be advanced for such an expectation.

In our civilization social inventions and the techniques of human relationship have fallen behind our advances in material inventions and machine technology. It is therefore reasonable to claim that, for the present at least, the social studies field is the most important one; certainly it is the one in which progress is most desperately needed. Whether it is the most important or whether it is simply the one which is furthest behind, it is regarded in many systems as the core of the elementary program. And in all systems it is receiving more attention in the curriculum and in the daily schedule. Furthermore, the field is difficult; it requires extensive and intensive study, and because of its rapidly in-

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creasing and changing content, it requires constant additions and revisions. Because of its importance, its increasing place in the school, and its difficulty, the elementary teacher can profitably devote special and intensive attention to the field of the social studies.

IMPORTANCE OF THE TEACHER

The quality of instruction is the determinative factor in any social studies program. Courses of study, reading materials, equipment, and attractive rooms are important; good supervision and administration contribute to the success of instruction; an appreciative community and stirring events facilitate the work of the school; but all these factors are ineffectual unless there is a good teacher in the classroom.

Educational leaders have successively developed faith in and stressed various elements in the teaching process. Thus the psychology of learning, visual and auditory aids, new seating plans, courses of study, units, individual differences, homogeneous grouping, methods, evaluation, history of education, scholarship, personality development, the guidance movement, community resources, research, experimentation, and other elements have been studied and tried. All these are important and each has made its contribution to education. But they all fall short of success unless they are put into effect through competent teachers. Progress in education can be measured by the degree of improvement in the teacher.

Better teachers can be brought into the schools (1) by improving the methods and standards of selection, (2) by improving the quality of undergraduate training, (3) by promoting the growth of teachers in service, (4) by encouraging graduate work, and (5) by improving the conditions and status of teachers.

FUNCTIONS OF THE SOCIAL STUDIES TEACHER

The social studies teacher has the difficult task of bringing diverse elements together and blending them into a harmonious whole. Her first major function is to be a student of children—their growth, nature, needs, interests, capacities, and limitations, and how they learn. This obligation requires that she keep abreast of developments in education, psychology, and child de-

velopment. To be a student of education is even more important for the elementary teacher than for the high school or college teacher since the pupil is more dependent and needs more guidance than the advanced student. She should therefore search eagerly for such help as the professional literature offers.

The second major function of the social studies teacher is that she be a student of the social sciences and of current problems and events. This is necessary because the social sciences are the storehouses from which classroom materials and units are derived. By keeping abreast of current problems and events the teacher can utilize the newest materials, either because they supplement the social sciences or because they facilitate instruction. Notwithstanding the availability of excellent textbooks and attractively prepared units, the teacher is still responsible for the quality of the materials which she presents to her pupils.

The third function of the social studies teacher is to be the curriculum maker, or, in other words, the creator of the social studies. The historian's history, the economist's economics, or the geographer's geography usually needs revision, simplification, and reorganization. Being a student of the social sciences, the teacher is prepared to recognize accurate, timely, and pertinent materials. And being a student of children, she is qualified to remake these materials into suitable units for the pupils.

The fourth function of the social studies teacher is to be the connective between diverse groups and elements, the interpreter of each to the other. As a specialist in human relationships, she can interpret the school to the community, the community to the school; the teachers to the parents, and the parents to the teachers. She can bring together the past and the present, the new and the old, the alien and the native, the near and the remote, the school and society.

These various functions of the social studies teacher become clearer if one contrasts them with the functions of the elementary teacher as a teacher of arithmetic. In teaching arithmetic, the teacher needs to be (1) a student of children, (2) a student of mathematics, and (3) a maker of the arithmetic curriculum. If she keeps abreast of the improvements in the teaching of arithmetic, she need not concern herself very much with the changes in

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- 34. Promotes cooperation
- 35. Recognizes pupil contributions
- 36. Gives pupils opportunities to talk
- 37. Allows pupils great freedom
- 38. Is objective and impersonal
- 39. Has interest in individual pupils
- 40. Promotes group activities

V. *Teaching Functions and Procedures*

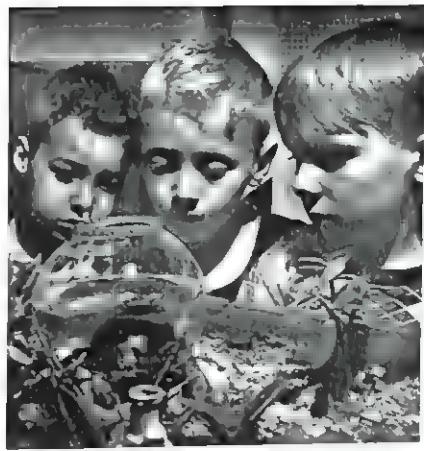
- 41. Makes criticisms judiciously
- 42. Analyzes defects
- 43. Explains clearly
- 44. Gives explicit directions
- 45. Develops varied procedures
- 46. Answers questions
- 47. Develops concepts
- 48. Provides meaningful practice
- 49. Emphasizes skills
- 50. Develops generalizations
- 51. Asks questions for specific purposes
- 52. Creates interests
- 53. Outlines assignments and plans clearly
- 54. Provides favorable conditions for work
- 55. Includes dramatic play

VI. *Teaching Aids*

- 56. Uses the radio
- 57. Plays recordings
- 58. Utilizes motion pictures
- 59. Stresses maps, charts, diagrams, etc.
- 60. Makes field trips
- 61. Utilizes invited speakers
- 62. Guides construction projects
- 63. Uses bulletin boards
- 64. Guides making of scrapbooks
- 65. Encourages collecting
- 66. Utilizes models, friezes, puppets, etc.

VII. *Evaluation*

- 67. Uses standardized tests
- 68. Makes good tests
- 69. Utilizes tests for improvement
- 70. Employs progress charts
- 71. Discusses pupil performance individually



OBSERVATION AND DISCUSSION
HELP TO BUILD LASTING IMPRES-
SIONS.

CURIOSITY AND OBSERVATION
PROMOTE LEARNING AND UNDER-
STANDING.



ABILITY TO PLAN COOPERATIVELY IS A WORTHY OBJECTIVE OF THE
SOCIAL STUDIES.



WHILE INSTRUCTION USUALLY TAKES PLACE IN SCHOOL,
THE CHILDREN MAKE EXTENSIVE USE OF SOCIAL REALITIES
BEYOND THE CLASSROOM.



ACTIVITIES WHICH HAVE A NATURAL APPEAL CAN BE MOST
SUCCESSFULLY ADJUSTED TO PUPIL ABILITY AND DEVELOP-
MENT.

72. Keeps behavior records
73. Explains the purpose of tests
74. Bases marks on varied achievements
75. Evaluates written materials
76. Maintains systematic records
77. Guides pupil appraisals
78. Evaluates other factors as well as pupil performance

The poor teacher stresses selfish objectives, does not prepare, ignores individual differences, selfishly shirks her responsibilities, knows little about children, maintains a disorderly room, neglects interesting materials, gets into routine ruts, sticks to the course of study, makes few plans, bluffs and stalls, and hands out punishments frequently. In short, she evidences the absence of some or all the good practices listed above. The point in mentioning undesirable practices is to indicate another technique for self-diagnosis.

TRAINING OF THE SOCIAL STUDIES TEACHER

The social studies teacher in the elementary schools has need of a wide acquaintanceship with all the social sciences. Their importance, difficulty, complexity, and changing content make them a field which calls for more than passing familiarity. Fortunately, most teachers colleges and colleges of education have recognized this need, and so provide reasonably acceptable programs in history, geography, political science, sociology, and economics. In view of the fact that elementary teachers must know materials from all fields of knowledge, it is seldom possible for them to take courses in all five of the social sciences mentioned. A large percentage of prospective teachers, however, do take courses in at least three of the subjects. When only three can be studied, it is perhaps wise to choose history, geography, and political science, for materials from these subjects are most extensively utilized in the elementary grades.

The other major area in which the social studies teacher needs training is education. The Committee on American History in Schools and Colleges drew up the following statement of the recommended work in social studies and education which an elementary teacher might reasonably be expected to take.

1. A thorough training in United States history, including a general survey and study in at least one specialized period or topic.
2. Intensive study of European or world history.
3. Basic training in as many other social sciences as possible, but not fewer than two besides history.
4. Familiarity with educational psychology, principles and history of education, and tests and measurements.
5. Awareness of the social and philosophical aspects of education.
6. Thorough familiarity with the methods of teaching the social studies.
7. Practice teaching within the social studies field.¹

These recommendations indicate that the training of a social studies teacher requires the combined resources of the social science and education departments. Neither group can provide adequate or complete instruction. As standards are raised and more preparation is required of teachers, the need for a well-integrated program to which the departments of education and the social sciences must contribute will become even more obvious.

Perhaps the only serious omission in these recommendations is the failure to mention specifically the need of studying children. It might also be added, although it may be implied under "tests and measurement," that teachers need careful and specific help in methods of evaluation, such as records of conduct, reading lists, changes in attitudes, and other evidences of growth.

In spite of the most excellent training program and the earnest efforts of the most capable student, the teacher will find when she begins to teach that her preparation was incomplete. In fact, she will often feel that it was woefully inadequate. As she faces the children and realizes her incomplete and inadequate background, she is ready for the next stage in the education of the teacher, in-service growth.

IN-SERVICE GROWTH OF SOCIAL STUDIES TEACHERS

The responsibility for a well-planned program of teacher improvement rests upon administrators and supervisors. They

¹ Edgar B. Wesley, Director, *American History in Schools and Colleges*, 96-97. Macmillan, 1944.

should base promotions and salary increases upon evidences of professional growth. By their policies they can challenge teachers to meet ever-rising standards or they can lull them into lethargic complacency.

The teachers in smaller schools and even in many large systems, however, cannot afford to delay self-improvement until it receives official sponsorship and recognition. By starting at once upon their own initiative they will soon be able to pass on to better positions in better administered schools. The capable and ambitious teacher who wants to grow professionally has available a number of promising opportunities and means.

The first and most important method of teacher growth, one that is available everywhere, is *professional reading*. Books and magazines in the social sciences and education can be bought or borrowed. Clubs of teachers may well be formed for the purpose of securing the desired materials. Committees of teachers sometimes annotate books and articles and make their results available for colleagues. Among the most helpful materials which a social studies teacher can read are the publications of the National Council for the Social Studies, which is a department of the National Education Association. *Social Education*, the Council's official magazine, appears monthly during the school year. Its yearbooks are published for distribution and discussion at the annual Thanksgiving meetings. The council also publishes bulletins on a variety of topics and problems. Another publication of importance is the *Elementary School Journal*, published by the University of Chicago. Many of its articles are devoted to the social studies. Constant, serious, and purposive reading pays large returns in satisfaction, in increased competence, and often in promotions and higher salaries.

A second method of teacher growth is that of *professional writing*. Nearly every social studies teacher is under the necessity of preparing committee reports, stating objectives, and writing units. Many teachers write book reviews and articles for national, state, or local magazines. Most states now have social studies councils which publish frequent bulletins. The teacher who is willing to write can often find an outlet for her work in these bulletins of the

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state councils. Bacon long ago observed, "Writing maketh an exact man." The teacher who wishes to clarify and definitize her experiences and ideas should try this method of self-improvement.

A third method of teacher growth is through *professional activities* in educational organizations. Attendance at faculty meetings, membership on committees, and trips to state and national conventions are valuable. The teacher who has a place on a program or becomes an officer in an organization not only learns professional materials, but also extends and deepens her social contacts and appreciations. The teacher who welcomes instead of shuns professional assignments and opportunities is the one who will grow most.

Another means of increasing professional competence is travel. Visits to scenic spots and significant geographical areas, historical scenes, museums, art galleries, public buildings, and industrial plants are pleasant and stimulating. Such purposive travel extends interests, deepens insights, and vastly expands one's store of illustrations.

A fifth and very tangible means of growth is that of taking additional university work. Whether the teacher seeks an advanced degree, help on a unit, or general stimulation, she can have a pleasant and profitable six weeks. In summer school the teacher should plan to take courses in the social sciences as well as in education. One advantage of additional work in universities is that it is a type of growth which administrators can easily recognize, and they sometimes appraise it in terms of increased salaries.

Other opportunities of professional growth are numerous. Community service on boards, committees, juries, and programs enables the teacher to know the people and to demonstrate to herself that she is a participating citizen. Work experience during the summer in offices, stores, and factories has realistic values for the social studies teacher. An increased understanding of economic and social processes is apt to follow. The seeing of worthwhile plays and motion pictures, attendance at ball games and other public gatherings, and familiarity with funny page characters and radio entertainers help the teacher to keep up with the pupil.

FREEDOM OF TEACHING

The social studies more than any other field of the elementary program is fraught with controversial issues. People feel strongly about how history is taught, the manner in which parties and elections are treated, and what is said about the tariff, social relations, and regional projects like the Tennessee Valley Authority. Even when the teacher is competent, reasonable, and tactful she is in danger of offending individuals and groups. Her freedom to teach is likely to be restricted. If any teacher is to stand up for her freedom it will have to be the social studies teacher. A few principles are fairly clear and acceptable.

The teacher wants freedom to teach, not for any selfish or personal reason, but because she cannot teach honestly, frankly, and effectively without it. The pupils deserve the right to learn; they cannot have it unless the teacher has the freedom to teach. The school is the only institution which is committed to objectivity, to an unbiased presentation of materials. Political parties are committed to their policies; churches are pledged to their creeds; industry is set to maintain its practices; labor unions are organized to uphold their side of disputes. Only the schools even undertake to be disinterested and uncommitted. Those who restrict the teacher are trying to deprive the children of their one opportunity to hear all sides of issues.

Freedom to teach rests upon professional competence. Freedom to speak on all kinds of issues cannot be bestowed upon a person. Such freedom must rest upon knowledge, judgment, good intentions, objectivity, and disinterestedness. Freedom to teach is not a commodity which the school board or superintendent bestows upon teachers; it is a hard-won right which belongs to a teacher because she has demonstrated the capacity to handle it. While teachers are justified in resisting petty restrictions and regulations, they must be sure their freedom rests upon competence, for in the long run even a school board or a superintendent cannot guarantee freedom to an unworthy teacher.

Restrictions upon the teacher's freedom assume various forms. Sometimes they appear as directives on where to board, what store to patronize, what church to attend, what entertainments to shun,

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the manner in which to dress. Sometimes teachers are forbidden to leave town for week ends; sometimes they are forbidden to keep company with young men or to marry.

Within the social studies there are many taboos. In some communities the teacher must not criticize advertising; in others the high tariff on a particular commodity is an untouchable; in others she must not mention oleomargarine; in others she must not say kind things about Negroes; in others the American Revolution, the Civil War, or even an election must be handled with caution.

The greatest harm in these restrictions is not the specific limitations which they impose but the general inhibiting effect which they have upon the teacher's morale. They are well calculated to break the spirit and induce craven submission. Under them the teacher is tempted to give up initiative and become an unimaginative and routine hearer of lessons. Thus these taboos and restrictions inevitably mar the quality of instruction which the children receive.

Against these inroads, these petty invasions of her personal and professional career, the teacher can protest, both as an individual and as a member of a group. She can inquire about such matters before signing a contract, and in extreme cases she can protest, fight, and possibly resign. Short of resigning she can help to carry on a campaign to enlighten the public as to the issues and to point out the dangers of such restrictions. Since they are sometimes the result of arbitrary orders by school boards, made to quiet some voluble patron, they are open to publicity and analysis. Surely teachers, of all people, should believe in education, even that which teachers direct toward their own protection. But there is no quick or sure cure for oppressions and restrictions. Increased salaries, a higher status, and above all increased competence will in the long run win freedom for the teacher.

A PERSONAL LIBRARY OF PROFESSIONAL BOOKS

CARR, EDWIN R., *Guide to Reading for Social Studies Teachers*. National Council for the Social Studies, Bulletin 26, 1951.

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LEE, J. MURRAY, and LEE, DORRIS MAY, *The Child and His Curriculum*. Appleton-Century-Crofts, Second Edition, 1950. 686 pp. \$4.00.

MICHAELIS, JOHN U., *Social Studies for Children in a Democracy*. Prentice-Hall, 1950. 466 pp. \$4.50.

WESLEY, EDGAR B., Director, *American History in Schools and Colleges*. Macmillan, 1944. 148 pp. \$1.25.

—, and ADAMS, MARY A., *Teaching Social Studies in Elementary Schools*. Heath, Revised, 1952.

PEDAGOGICAL PANACEAS

In education, as in all professions, there are sincere discoverers, experimenters, and scholars; there are also smooth promoters, impatient reformers, and quixotic crusaders. To distinguish between the educator and the sophist, the genuine and the spurious, the permanent and the ephemeral, the teacher needs cautious skepticism and discerning insight.

Teachers, like workers in all fields, are interested in short cuts to achievement, royal roads to learning, easy generalizations which will save time and worry. In view of the rapidity with which American education has grown and the hasty manner in which teachers have had to be recruited, it is not surprising that there has been a prolonged and intensive search for pedagogical panaceas. The writer or speaker who announced a new plan or the discovery of a new method was assured of a hearty reception.

In the history of American education many panaceas have been placed on the educational market. Object teaching, the use of pictures, the five formal steps, the project method, the platoon system, homogeneous grouping, motion pictures, the radio, activities, integration, fusion, measurement, and various other ideas, plans, and methods have been heralded as the solutions to pedagogical problems. Each of these contained elements of truth; each has made its contribution to education.

There is nothing unusual or unnatural in seeking a formula, a guide, a golden text. Confusion is likely to follow only when a teacher actually thinks she has found a simple panacea for a very complicated process. Teachers should watch hopefully for new discoveries, because the profession does make progress, but they should also examine critically each new proposal. Premature en-

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thusiasm and faith in a proposed solution naturally leads to errors and disappointment. Such experiences are likely to drive the teacher back to a resigned complacency in which she will scorn real discoveries and advances.

In education, as in other professions, speakers and writers try to inject new meanings into familiar words, to coin new phrases, and to overhaul the terminology. When this process is allowed to grow naturally, it is an asset to the profession. When verbal progress outstrips the actualities which it purports to describe, however, confusion and disorder result. Some of these misleading clichés, mottoes, and catchwords deserve identification.

One of the most common sources of educational confusion arises from the faith engendered by the too frequent use of one word, assigning to it an inclusive meaning and investing it with an emotional connotation. Examples of such words are *functional*, *activity*, *integration*, and *progressive*. All of these are significant and appropriate words. All deserve a place in any educational glossary. Harm arises only when any one word becomes a standard for measuring ideas, proposals, and persons, when it becomes the touchstone by which all values are tested. Education stands in need of an objective and exact vocabulary. The profession suffers and the individual teacher deceives herself, however, when she invests a particular word with mystical qualities. The profession should eschew supernatural connotations and endeavor to achieve a vocabulary with as specific meanings as the nature of the ideas allows.

Another example of educational confusion is the tendency to assign all ideas to one of two categories, right or wrong, black or white, either one or the other, all or none. Such tendency leads one to describe a curriculum as an activity program *or* a subject program; an educator as a radical *or* a reactionary; a school as dominated by freedom *or* authority; a method as modern *or* antiquated. This either-or tendency leads to partisanship, superficiality, and oversimplification.

A third example of an educational panacea is the selection of a phrase or an idea and assigning an inferior status to all competing ideas. Thus the phrase *child-centered school* is sometimes regarded as a kind of achievement, as an idea which is superior to

all possible substitutes. It would be possible for a sincere and able administrator to employ excellent teachers, enroll a select student body, buy elaborate equipment, and run a modern school under the name "a teacher-centered school." In fact, one could imagine a modern school which was called a "book-centered school," "a parent-centered school," "a community-centered school," "a play-centered school," "a group-centered school," "a society-centered school," or "an equipment-centered school." A favorable word does not determine the quality of a school. A verbal victory may result from the use of a particular term, but the educational process is not enriched by assigning pedagogical efficacy to a word or phrase.

Another example of spurious achievement in education is the attack upon certain terms. Words that once had meaning, dignity, exactness, and respectability are charged with harboring undesirable connotations, and so the words themselves are diluted or avoided. "Discipline" was once a respectable word. It was accused of associating with "restraint" and "punishment." For guilt by association it has been banned. The Harvard Report joins in the assault by demanding that teachers be "educated" instead of "trained." "Teacher," a word of dignity and humility, assumed by every great religious leader, is accused of self-centeredness, domination, and wanton intrusion. This process of undermining words results in the substitution of ten words to replace the one expunged or to the use of others that are less exact and appropriate. Teachers and writers should respect the character of words as well as of persons and refrain from etymological defamation.

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Two thirds of the book deals with European teachers; somewhat scornful of education.

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BARR, A. S., *Characteristic Differences in the Teaching Performances of Good and Poor Teachers of the Social Studies*. Bloomington: Public School Publishing Company, 1929.

Some of the reported differences do not seem to be very significant, but the study is suggestive and helpful.

BEALE, HOWARD K., *Are American Teachers Free?* New York: Scribner's, 1936.

The answer is no. Many concrete instances of pressures and dictations. The author correctly emphasizes the baleful effects of such procedures. Some of the author's *obiter dicta* about education have no connection whatever with either his research or his conclusions.

—, *A History of Freedom of Teaching in American Schools*. New York: Scribner's, 1941.

Shows that the teacher in America has never achieved any enviable status.

BERKSON, I. B., *Preface to an Educational Philosophy*. New York: Columbia University Press, 1940.

Every social studies teacher should read some books on philosophy. Contains an excellent analysis of democracy, especially its economic aspects.

CAMPBELL, ROALD F., "Evaluation and the Rating of Teachers," *Elementary School Journal*, 41:671-676, May, 1941.

Proposes a teacher-rating scale and supervisor's check sheet based on these points: "The good teacher—

1. Encourages pupil participation in planning, executing, and evaluating.
2. Uses current materials in professional study and in work with pupils.
3. Stimulates fair consideration of controversial issues.
4. Provides appropriate firsthand experiences for pupils and himself.
5. Has an agreeable personal demeanor and appearance.
6. Cares for administrative detail with a degree of dispatch in order not to handicap other workers.
7. Discovers, and relates work to, the need of pupils."

CARR, EDWIN R., *Guide to Reading for Social Studies Teachers*. National Council for the Social Studies, Bulletin 26, 1951.

THE SOCIAL STUDIES TEACHER

The author examined hundreds of books in ten different subjects and gives teachers an introduction to a rich storehouse of reading. Concrete, reliable, stimulating, and helpful. Deserves to be purchased by every teacher who makes any pretense of keeping up with the field.

Childhood Education, September–May. Association for Childhood Education, 1200 Fifteenth St., Washington 6, D.C. \$4.50.

Probably the best magazine for teachers of young children.

CORDIER, R. W., "A Continuous Program for In-Service Professional Growth," *Social Education*, 5:595–597, December, 1941.

Suggests that committees of teachers from different school levels devote themselves to the study of professional problems. Lists twenty-one suggested problems.

HAWKINSON, ELLA A., *Selected Difficulties of Social Studies Teachers*, Ph.D. thesis, University of Minnesota, 1941.

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ROBBINS, FLORENCE GREENHOE, "Student Reactions to Teacher Personality Traits," *Educational Administration and Supervision*, 30:241–246, April, 1944.

A guide to seeing yourself as your pupils see you.

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SPEIGHT, HAROLD E. B., "Criteria for Teacher Education," *Social Education*, 6:219-221, May, 1942.

A summary of the report of a committee in New York. Stresses the need for teacher and pupil participation in the life of the community.

WESLEY, EDGAR B., Director, *American History in Schools and Colleges*. New York: Macmillan, 1944.

This little report contains an excellent chapter on the training of the teacher and a specific plan for the elementary teacher.

Part 3

SOCIAL AND
EDUCATIONAL OBJECTIVES



8. SOCIAL REALITIES AND THE SOCIAL STUDIES

THE SOCIAL HERITAGE AND THE CHILD

Our social heritage consists of the accumulated achievements of man. Toys, clothes, books, dynamos, numbers, mechanical coal-diggers, games, language, Congress, bathtubs, and television are examples of the vast variety and extent of our social heritage. No child needs to start from the stone age; he is heir to a rich and marvelous heritage.

For years adults were impatient to have children learn about the great achievements of modern civilization. Forgetting the immaturity and inexperience of children, many parents and some teachers rushed the process of introducing children to modern culture. The results were unsatisfactory and, in some instances, disastrous, for the child was overwhelmed and confused.

To offset the premature introduction of the child to the social heritage, some educators developed the theory that the child needed merely to unfold, to grow, to acquire skills and understandings in his own way and at his own preferred rate. The child rather than our culture became the center of an educational philosophy.

There is no question that the child had been harshly treated, impatiently rushed, and prematurely exposed to adult concepts and problems. He needed to be accepted as an individual, as a member of society, and as having a right to be a child. Childhood has become a recognized period of life, and the child should not be regarded merely as a potential adult.

In the process of working out acceptable theories and practices, some teachers have acquired the notion that the social heritage is the enemy of the child, that the achievements of civilization are not acceptable curricular materials. This is, of course, an error, for pencils, paper, writing, reading, and all the contents

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and activities of even the primary grades are portions of our heritage. So the question is not, Shall we introduce the child to his social heritage? It is rather, To what portions of the heritage shall the child be introduced? When? By what methods?

Perhaps the situation can be vivified by regarding the teacher as a *hostess*, the social heritage as a big, wealthy *relative*, and the child as the potential *heir* of the relative. As a gracious hostess the teacher may assure the child that his big, wealthy relative has many toys, that he knows lots of games, that he is fond of children. Although big and impressive, the social heritage has an infinite variety of resources that are especially appealing to children. The hostess selects and emphasizes those portions that appeal to children, that they will understand and appreciate. Thus by selection and timing, the hostess prepares the *heir* to meet and understand his benefactor.

This analysis shows that the child has immediate need of portions of our social heritage. Whatever errors of haste and premature introductions have occurred in our educational past do not negate the basic truth that education is growth in the ability to accept, manage, and improve the social heritage. The child should, of course, be expected to claim only those portions of his heritage for which he has need. The teacher, however, must see the long and complicated process. She must seek to so socialize the child that he will become a participating member of society, one who will claim that portion of the heritage to which his needs and abilities entitle him.

This analysis also shows why the teacher must be a student of contemporary civilization. She must seek to understand its complexities, its trends, its needs, and its opportunities. By being an active student of society the teacher can guide the child more effectively and more understandingly in the long process by which he becomes a worthy member of society. She thus becomes the perfect hostess and the child becomes a worthy heir who enters into the full possession of his heritage.

DEMOCRACY AND EDUCATION

Education in its fullest and richest sense is possible only within the framework of democracy. If the government, the church, or

influential pressure groups try to set limits for education, they thereby hamper, not only its freedom, but its effectiveness. Whoever tries to set limits, establish taboos, and mark off forbidden areas is the enemy of education. Such restraints tend to destroy its effectiveness even within the areas in which it is supposedly free. Fear, compulsion, and restraint are the enemies of education. To say that democracy is the friend and patron of education is an understatement; education cannot function without the freedom which democracy alone can provide.

Education and democracy may be said to have signed a reciprocity agreement, a treaty providing for mutual support and exchange. Democracy provides the setting in which education can flourish, and education provides the spirit and morale which insure the continuance of democracy. The statesmen and leaders who establish public education in the United States performed a profound service; they thereby took out an insurance policy for the endurance of democracy. Education, having written this policy, cannot afford to repudiate its obligation.

The upholding of democracy involves the practice of democracy. Since it provides the only setting in which teaching and learning can fully succeed, the teacher should have no difficulty in accepting and practicing its principles. This acceptance involves treating pupils as human beings, paying them the courtesies and deferences which are due fellow creatures. Such a policy not only upholds and inculcates democracy; it also facilitates the learning of concepts, skills, and information and the attainment of understanding and insight.

Within the setting of democracy this book can be written without fear of censorship or restraint; within the same setting the teacher can read it and try out such ideas as appeal to her. Within such an atmosphere we are all free to analyze our government and the whole society in which it operates. Such an analysis may lead to better schools, better social studies programs, more intelligent and enthusiastic citizens, and a stronger, more vital democracy.

Within such a framework and with such a faith the social studies teacher cannot be a mere hearer of lessons, a purveyor of information, an inspector of conduct. To be consistent she must

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be a director, a sharer, a participator in all the efforts of the children. The objectives will be accepted by the pupils; the curriculum, the activities, and even the standards of measurement will be evolved with their help and established with their consent. In brief, the social studies teacher will be a teacher and a practitioner of democracy, both because she believes in it and because it makes possible the soundest pedagogy.

NEED FOR SOCIAL ANALYSIS

The question of what should be taught to boys and girls is one that has no final answer. The making of a curriculum that will suit their needs and meet society's demands is therefore a difficult and complex process. The making of a curriculum can be divided into five steps: (1) the analysis of society to ascertain its demands and standards; (2) the determination of objectives; (3) the selection of proper activities and contents; (4) the organization of these materials into suitable forms for teaching; and (5) the arranging of the materials to fit the varying needs of classes and individuals. This and the succeeding chapters are devoted to an account of this curricular process.

The very existence of schools is evidence of an advanced and complex society. Primitive people had few skills, limited equipment, and only a small fund of knowledge. In such society the parents could by incidental instruction teach their children all they needed to know. First Hatchet could teach his son how to make a bow and arrow, and the mother could teach the daughter how to cure a skin and roast a piece of meat. No special educational institution was necessary.

Civilization made slow progress. As late as the seventh century Isidore, Bishop of Seville, was able to record the essence of human knowledge within the bounds of what would now be an ordinary textbook. During the spare time of ten years he compiled practically all that was known of science, government, art, history, theology, and all other branches. He was cited as the most learned man of his age. In his day there was little need for schools since the social heritage had such small proportions.

Contrast these primitive beginnings and the limited heritage A.D. 630 with the almost limitless fund of knowledge which we

possess today. The aggregate of knowledge is bewildering in its extent and complexity. No one man now tries to cover all aspects of even a single subject. Thus the problem of the teacher is not to teach the entire social heritage, for that would be impossible, but to select those portions which should be taught. The first task of the teacher, and especially the social studies teacher, is, therefore, to analyze and evaluate society for the purpose of finding out what should be taught to boys and girls to fit them for social participation. Naturally such analysis should be made with a constant awareness of the capacities, needs, and interests of the pupils.

The school is a social institution, created and maintained by society to promote its own purposes. The teacher is therefore under imperative obligation to try to understand the nature and purpose of the society which the school serves. This obligation does not mean the abject surrender of professional judgment nor the docile acceptance of the dicta of school boards and school administrators. It means simply that the teacher, along with all other educational workers, must try to understand the society in which she lives and which she seeks to serve.

Educators have repeatedly lamented the failure of teachers to sense social needs and trends. Not understanding social processes and not knowing national purposes, teachers have often had to accept the interpretations of others, many of whom were likewise unprepared to make such analyses. In the absence of an understanding of social trends, teachers cannot chart a clear and direct course for the schools. Thus the schools may lag behind social progress, jump ahead of it, or go off on peripheral by-paths.

If teachers are incapable of analyzing society, they must inevitably accept an inferior status and teach what they are told to teach in the way they are told to teach it. Such teachers have failed to reach professional stature. Unless and until the teacher becomes a vigorous student of society, she will not understand the status, purposes, and functions of the school nor its relationship to society and to the state. It is highly desirable for the sake of society and of the schools that teachers participate in determining both social and educational purposes.

ANALYSIS OF SOCIAL PROGRESS

Society is continually trying to make life for its members safer, more healthful, more attractive, and more satisfying. Progress toward these goals consists of innumerable changes and improvements. With respect to any particular change the process may be divided into three steps or stages: (1) the recognition of a defect, difficulty, or *problem*, (2) the formulation of a *purpose* to do something about it, and (3) the finding of a *solution*. The process of social change may be illustrated by a brief examination of three examples, *immigration*, *education*, and *racial relationships*.

For more than a century people from all lands poured into the United States. They were welcomed and given opportunities. Up to about 1885 their coming was generally regarded as a great blessing to America. Thereafter the number of immigrants increased enormously and they came from southern and eastern Europe, whereas the older immigrants had come from northern and northwestern Europe. These new immigrants tended to settle in clusters within large cities and so resisted assimilation. Slowly the national attitude toward immigration changed; it began to be regarded as a *problem*. It was discussed in newspapers, magazines, and books, from political platforms, in public meetings, and particularly in the halls of labor unions. Gradually the discussion led to the determination to do something about immigration. The process had reached the second stage, the formulation of a *purpose*. Various measures and laws were proposed. Finally, Congress by the laws of 1921, 1924, and 1927 found a *solution*, namely the quota system by which immigration was virtually stopped. The solution was not complete, for the quota system does not apply to the Western Hemisphere, and the whole issue may be reopened at some future date. Thus the American people had identified immigration as a *problem*; they agreed upon a *purpose*, and they found a *solution* which was more or less satisfactory.

Education has likewise gone through the three stages which mark social progress. In colonial America only the exceptional person could read and write. The formation of the United States

and the setting up of state governments called for popular participation. An elementary education became necessary. The establishment of schools became a recognized *problem*. Agitation for free public schools began. Makeshifts, such as charity, tuition, church, and monitorial schools, were tried and rejected. By 1830 the American people had formulated the *purpose* of establishing free, tax-supported schools. Throughout the following decades state after state set up state-supported schools. The people had found a *solution*.

Another aspect of social progress is strikingly instanced by education, namely, the raising of standards, which involves a repetition of the whole process of identifying the *problem*, generating a *purpose*, and finding a *solution*. By 1875 there was a nation-wide recognition of the *problem* of providing additional schooling. The *purpose* of doing something was rapidly accepted, and the formula for its *solution* by establishing high schools was being widely applied by 1900.

The social process with respect to intercultural relationships is more complicated than in the case of immigration and education. For more than a century land was so plentiful and opportunities were so numerous that each group, whether it was racial, national, religious, or cultural, was able to find room and relative freedom. Within recent decades, however, the vast growth of our cities has thrown peoples of diverse origins and culture into intimate contacts. In addition, the rise of fascism with its emphasis upon race caused Americans to be more deeply concerned about their own treatment of minorities and diverse groups. The relationship of these groups has become a *problem*. Segregation, poll taxes, Jim Crow laws, and discriminations of various kinds have been tried. Many persons are opposed to granting equal and similar opportunities to all groups. In other words no clear or unanimous *purpose* with respect to this problem has evolved. As soon as such a purpose evolves, if it eventually does, some formula or solution will probably be found. In the meantime the teacher, both as a citizen and as a teacher, discusses the *problem*, urges the adoption of a *purpose*, or advocates some proposed *solution*.

These three examples of social progress in its various stages enable us to understand the process more clearly. When society en-

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counters an undesirable situation, such as too many immigrants, widespread illiteracy, discord among social groups, unemployment, lawlessness, disease, or broken homes, it identifies the problem. People then become aware of the situation and describe and discuss it and analyze its nature and extent. It becomes a recognized problem when people discuss it on the platform and over the radio, in forums and conversations, and in newspapers, magazines, and books. Frequency, intensity, and persistence of discussion are the clues to the identification of a social problem.

Social problems of national magnitude do not appear overnight. The stage of recognition or identification often covers a number of years. Speed of traffic was not a problem before the widespread use of automobiles. Recognition of the situation required time. Before the rise of cities sanitation was not a serious problem, and recognition of it required time and additional experience. Conditions change, standards rise, and new problems emerge.

The transition from the stage of recognizing a problem to a determination to do something about it is gradual. No sharp line can be drawn between the period of recognition and the emergence of a united purpose. After the acceptance of the necessity for action a period for the consideration of proposed solutions ensues. Experimentation with these proposals lengthens the period of purpose, but eventually some kind of solution is found.

The period of purpose is evidenced by action. When a people have decided to correct a situation they start campaigns, appoint committees, draw up petitions, pass resolutions, enact laws, appropriate funds, and give other evidences of the seriousness of their purpose. Thus action is evidence of the acceptance of a local or national purpose. These purposes furnish the bases for the determination of educational objectives.

Solutions to social problems assume many forms. Some of them are really evasions; many are only partial; others are tentative and temporary; and very few are thoroughgoing and permanent solutions. The solution often appears as a formula which has widespread and repeated applicability. Decreased death rates follow improved sanitation; better living conditions reduce crime; a vigorous electorate insures better government. These

and many other formulas either constitute or provide the means for solutions of social problems. The application and testing of a solution usually requires considerable time. And in the meantime changed conditions may have altered the problem and the whole process of identification, purpose, and solution may have to be repeated.

SOME PERENNIAL PROBLEMS

The process of social analysis at any time will show that many of the items in the list given below are either potential or active problems. They may have varying intensities and varying degrees of applicability for different communities. By a careful examination of current developments the teacher can decide which have pertinency and relevancy to a particular curriculum.

This list contains a mixture of general and specific problems. Most of them are national in scope, but many of them are susceptible of local application. Some of them are stated negatively and some positively, for logically it makes little difference whether one regards unemployment or employment, disease or health, illiteracy or education as the problem. It should be recognized that they are problems and not unit titles (for the latter see Chapter 14).

ECONOMIC PROBLEMS

The national income	Our circulating money
Wages and salaries	Interest rates
Returns on investments	Consumer education
An annual wage	Consumer cooperatives
Employment	Honest advertising
Seasonal employment	Honest quality
Workmen's compensation laws	Full weight
Capital and labor	Full measure
Labor unions	Conservation
Strikes	Irrigation
Lockouts	Soil erosion
Blacklists	Forest fires
Child labor	Growing lumber
Owning your home	Saving wildlife
Financing a business	Transportation

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Freight rates	Free tracks for trucks
Passenger fares	Busses use the highways
Building highways	

POLITICAL PROBLEMS

Honest government	Good neighbor policy
Government ownership	Extending democracy
Fair elections	Civil service
Party platforms	Controlling corporations
Fair representation	Regulating banks
Taxes	Regulating public utilities
A world state	Crime
War	Criminal justice
Tariffs	Reforming criminals
Reciprocal tariffs	

SOCIAL PROBLEMS

Population changes	Minorities
Declining birth rate	Youth organizations
Declining death rate	Compulsory military service
World peace	Public opinion
Poverty	Freedom of speech
Social security	Maintaining civil liberties
Old age pensions	Censorship of plays
Accident insurance	Censorship of motion pictures
Unemployment insurance	Censorship of the mails
Care of defectives	Censorship of books
Sharecroppers	Controlling the radio
Migratory workers	Courteous conduct
Intercultural relations	Juvenile delinquency

CULTURAL PROBLEMS

Recreation	Schools for everybody
Art	Public libraries
Music	Character education
Education	Illiteracy

URBAN AND RURAL PROBLEMS

City planning	Playgrounds
Sanitation	Parks
Municipal ownership	Rural-urban migration

Good roads	Rural schools
Rural isolation	Rural churches
Farm tenancy	Fair prices for farm products
Rural electrification	

This list of problems, which is far from complete, illustrates the continuance and persistence of the difficulties which human beings encounter when they try to live together and maintain high standards. By scrutinizing it, the teacher can appreciate something of the range of the content of the social studies, and she can study some of them in detail and all of them in at least a general way.

The first reaction to some of the problems in the list may be the feeling that many of them do not concern the elementary pupil. While many of them should not be *studied* by the pupil, all of them will sooner or later be a matter of concern. And nearly all of them do affect the teacher. Her knowledge of them and her attitude toward them affect her teaching of the simplest unit. For example, her attitude toward rural problems will affect her teaching of the unit on the *farm, milk, or cotton*; her attitude toward monopolies and economic distribution will inevitably impinge upon the teaching of the unit on the *grocery store, the market, or transportation*.

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9. FUNCTIONS AND OBJECTIVES OF THE SOCIAL STUDIES

FUNCTIONS OF THE SOCIAL STUDIES

Each field of the curriculum has a twofold aspect. First, it serves human needs; it renders some practicable service to society. Second, it serves as a guide to students. As a guide it provides objectives and goals. This section is devoted to a description of the functions which the social studies perform, to a listing of their practical social values.

1. **SOCIAL EXPERIENCE.** The first function of the social studies is to afford social experiences for the pupils. Before entering school the child has already had varied experiences with parents, siblings, relatives, and playmates. He has already begun to construct theories and to make generalizations as to how to get along with people. The school provides new associates and multiplied opportunities for group and team interactions. As the pupil ascends the grade scale he becomes acquainted with additional social institutions. He learns how past states, armies, churches, and families lived, to what extent they failed or succeeded. The social studies field provides endless materials for both direct and vicarious social experiences, though the success of a particular pupil varies with his ability and the skill of his teacher.

2. **SOCIAL SKILLS.** The acquisition of social experience would be pointless unless the participant learns skills, techniques, and procedures that can be applied to subsequent situations. The study skills connected with reading, writing, and finding materials are, of course, indispensable, but they are only the foundations for the more valuable skills necessary for carrying on human relationships. Consideration of others, respect for competing opinions, toleration of differences, adjustment of opposition, and ac-

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commodation to compromises require the development of the highest type of social skills, for they are the elements that are necessary in building society. Directly and vicariously the social studies provide these social skills in great abundance. Potentially the field is capable of transforming the most rebellious and negative personalities into cooperative members. Thus the field performs a great social service.

3. SOCIAL KNOWLEDGE. In addition to furthering social experience, the social studies field provides an extensive storehouse of information about man's relationships. As the child matures and has need of the social heritage, the storehouse of accumulated experience is open to him. Through reading, through seeing films, television, and pictures, and through listening to others the pupil acquires some of the social knowledge that mankind has accumulated. Information from all fields is important and the social studies supply, not only the facts, but the interpretations, principles, and generalizations to those who are prepared to understand them.

4. SOCIAL STANDARDS. Inevitably, society has passed judgments upon the desirability of varied kinds of conduct. It has evolved standards for individuals, groups, and institutions. The individual shall tell the truth, obey the law, help his neighbor, meet his obligations, and establish a consistency of behavior. Groups must not exploit or oppress individuals; they may seek to help their members but not at the expense of society. Institutions, such as state, church, and business, may pursue their purposes, but must keep in view the effects which their efforts have upon society as a whole. Society is more inclusive than its components — individuals and institutions.

The social studies field reports and describes the standards that have evolved. Thus it provides materials for character education, for the formation of attitudes, and for deriving social ideals and standards. The field itself is not the judge, arbiter, or creator of standards; but as a mirror or reporter it serves a function of the highest social import.

5. SOCIAL PROBLEMS. One of the most valuable and difficult functions of the social studies is to bring the pupil to a realization that society has failed to solve numerous problems. A knowl-

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edge of the social heritage and respect for its achievements must not obscure the fact that inequality, injustice, and error still abound. Teaching that merely comforts and encourages is unrealistic and incomplete. Consequently the pupil must be introduced to the critical, problem solving procedure, not by a direct frontal attack upon society's unsolved problems, but indirectly, by beginning with simple situations that provide solvable problems for children. They can thus learn a method and a procedure. The ultimate purpose of their learning the procedure is, of course, that they may participate in social progress. The fact that they are temporarily limited to minor problems need not obscure the ultimate purpose for learning the problem solving method. The social studies provide unlimited opportunities for learning what society has failed to accomplish.

These five functions constitute an incomplete list, but they do provide an analysis of the field. They clarify the nature of the field and identify the social purposes which it serves. The following sections discuss ways by which teachers and pupils can discern objectives and so realize the social utility of the social studies.

HUMAN OBJECTIVES

Human beings everywhere have certain basic needs and wants. Out of them they create visions of ideal conditions, and toward these ideals they direct their purposes and efforts. Almost everyone has his own conception of the good life, the great society, the perfect state. Thus human beings dream of what they want, and these wants become their objectives.

Human objectives range from selfish personal aims to wide social values. Everyone starts with a realization of his own needs and wants; they become his immediate objectives. As he widens his contacts and becomes more sensitive to his fellow men, he realizes the interdependence of human beings; his objectives then become more social and inclusive. The Eskimo may envision a warm igloo and plenty of whale oil; the attainment of them becomes his objective. A statesman may envision a happy, industrious people and so directs his efforts toward the realization of that objective. On the personal level objectives are likely to

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center on food, houses, clothing, security, happiness, and success. On the social level they tend to include the brotherhood of man, the dignity of the individual, equality, liberty, justice, and democracy.

Human objectives vary from one period of time to another, from place to place, and culture to culture. Some objectives are ephemeral, while others endure from generation to generation; some are local, while others are widespread; and the indirect, complex, and intangible objectives of an advanced civilization differ sharply from the direct, simple, and tangible ones of a primitive society. However, the differences are in degree rather than kind and it is therefore possible to identify a few basic human objectives which, in one form or another, are typical or characteristic of most human groups. The following are examples of these enduring and pervasive objectives:

SOME HUMAN OBJECTIVES

Food	Independence
Shelter	Friendship
Employment	Status
Efficiency	Cooperation
Security	Courtesy
Conservation	Protection
Achievement	Justice
Health	Tolerance
Recreation	Conformity
Character	

Human objectives are derived from a variety of sources. Many of them evolve from the natural environment; others are acquired by associating with human beings. Some objectives are the result of experience and contemplation; some are derived from religion; others are evolved from political and social theories; still others come from philosophy. In view of these varied sources human objectives naturally vary in popularity, intensity, and persistence.

Once established, objectives determine thought and action, for a person tries to do whatever will promote the realization of his purpose. He cuts thick blocks of ice to make a warm igloo; he



GEOGRAPHY, HISTORY, LITERATURE, AND ART CAN CONTRIBUTE
TO AN INTEGRATED AND WELL-ORGANIZED UNIT.



THE SOCIAL STUDIES CURRICULUM INCLUDES MATERIALS THAT DEAL WITH
ALL PLACES AND PERIODS.



PROGRESS IN THE SOCIAL STUDIES DEPENDS TO A CONSIDERABLE EXTENT UPON THE AVAILABILITY OF READING MATERIALS.



LEARNING TO LOCATE INFORMATION IS AN IMPORTANT STEP IN DEVELOPING READING INTERESTS AND STUDY SKILLS.

joins others so that he can spear a larger whale; he takes a better job in order to raise his standard of living; he votes for the party whose policies he endorses; he subscribes to the magazines whose principles he advocates; he contributes to the causes which he approves; he joins the church whose creed is in line with his faith. He does whatever will promote his personal and social objectives.

Human objectives are basic to national purposes and educational aims. Out of these basic human needs and wants the people of a particular country can select those which they wish to achieve. They will select, modify, refine, and adjust the human objectives that appeal to them and adopt them as national purposes. Human objectives also affect the aims of the home, the government, industry, the church, and especially the schools, although educational aims are derived more directly, perhaps, from national purposes.

NATIONAL OBJECTIVES

The people of each nation slowly build up standards, traditions, and ideals. These are translated into national objectives when the country as a whole accepts them and endeavors to make them prevail. By the process of analyzing society (see Chapter 8) one can identify the problems and purposes of a particular people or country.

In the United States it is not difficult to identify our major national objectives. Various committees of educators, historians, and leaders have issued such lists from time to time, and any teacher by thoughtful reading and observation can make a practicable selection of the major purposes of the American people.

Perhaps public *discussion* is the most reliable key to identifying national objectives. A topic or issue which is discussed *widely, persistently, seriously, and extensively* is almost sure to indicate an accepted objective. For example, improved health has received such discussion within recent years. Radio speakers and lecturers have discussed the question; writers have described disease, physical defects, and possible remedies; organizations have passed resolutions and started campaigns; and people in all walks of life have discussed medical care and costs, hospitals,

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health insurance, and other aspects of health. It seems clear then that the American people intend to achieve higher standards of health.

A second mark of identification of a national objective is that of *action*. Perhaps the appropriation of funds by Congress and by state legislatures is the best single index of a serious national purpose. Action also takes the form of laws, which are strong evidences of serious intentions. Gifts, donations, grants by foundations, and popular subscriptions are other examples of action which indicate the acceptance of a national objective.

The platforms of the national political parties are excellent indexes of national problems and purposes. The purposes and policies as stated in the platforms may need to be discounted, but the range of issues which are discussed is reliable evidence of widespread interest and concern. Thus what is said about the tariff or old age pensions may not matter greatly, but the fact that they are discussed at all is significant.

From these various sources the teacher can prepare a list of the national objectives. Such a list should be reexamined and revised annually, although many of the objectives will continue to appear in each revision. The application of these criteria to the present situation in the United States would result in some such list as follows.

PREVAILING NATIONAL OBJECTIVES

1. To prevent wars
2. To uphold the United Nations
3. To control the atomic bomb
4. To provide military defenses
5. To aid war veterans
6. To maintain and expand democracy
7. To maintain civil liberties
8. To develop natural regions
9. To conserve and utilize natural resources
10. To extend international trade
11. To achieve full employment
12. To achieve a stable economy
13. To raise the standard of living
14. To expand transportation facilities
15. To equalize freight rates
16. To promote small businesses
17. To plan for future developments
18. To improve social security
19. To care for defectives
20. To control crime

- 21. To provide adequate housing
- 22. To raise esthetic standards
- 23. To improve health
- 24. To provide education for everyone
- 25. To provide entertainment and recreation

Any carefully prepared list of national objectives has great significance for teachers. In general the schools must support and promote whatever the majority of Americans want. While some national objectives cannot be very directly or effectively promoted in the schools, most of them can be helped in the long run. The boys and girls will acquire information about these issues and build up attitudes toward them. The greatest value for teachers in studying national objectives is that in some form they eventually become educational objectives.

AGENCIES FOR ACHIEVING OBJECTIVES

Objectives, both human and national, are approved and promoted by a number of agencies. Each of these makes its contribution, but no one of them alone can achieve a significant result. The extent to which these agencies agree and cooperate is the measure of the progress toward any particular objective. It is highly important that teachers recognize that other agencies have functions which parallel those of the schools. The schools alone cannot transmit the social heritage, train children properly, or achieve any significant human or national objective.

The principal agencies for achieving objectives are the home, the community, the church, the government, industry, public opinion, and the school. Take, for example, the basic human objective, *cooperation*. The schools may have units on it, utilize pupil committees, organize teams, and preach and teach its virtues, but unless the home has trained the child to play with other children, unless the church, the community, and other agencies also approve and promote *cooperation*, it will remain an unattained objective. Or consider the national objective of maintaining and expanding democracy. The schools alone can make little headway unless the home, the government, industry, and other agencies also help.

A recognition of the fact that the schools are not wholly responsible for perpetuating civilization, solving problems, and

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achieving objectives enables the teacher to see her work in truer perspective. A realization that the school is only one of several agencies striving for the same objective may seem to imply that the school is of minor importance. Such interpretation is, however, erroneous. Just as the school could not succeed without the help of the home and the government, neither can they succeed without its help. So the teacher should take heart from the fact that she has allies in her efforts to achieve her objectives and realize that the work of each is significant and necessary.

NATURE OF EDUCATIONAL OBJECTIVES

Educational objectives are as complex and as inclusive as social objectives, but they function within a limited and controlled environment. While many of them are susceptible of immediate realization, many others are goals of the distant future, of the years following formal schooling.

An educational objective must (1) be in harmony with social purpose, (2) indicate tasks which are within the capacities of the pupils, (3) be actually accepted and undertaken by the schools, and (4) be realizable through instruction or through the limited action which is possible in the schools. Unless a proposed objective meets these conditions it is not a realistic educational objective for American schools.

Educational objectives must be in harmony with, or at least not in opposition to, national objectives. While all national objectives do not constitute good educational objectives, the latter must not contradict or oppose the former. It is unthinkable, for example, that an American school, maintained and supported by the state, could advocate fascism, polygamy, a state religion, or any other doctrine or principle so obviously at variance with the explicit wishes and declared purposes of the people of the state. Neither can the schools long evade positive injunctions to teach cooperation, international good will, democracy, and other socially approved purposes.

Educational objectives must indicate action and study which are within the capacities of pupils. Pressure groups sometimes ask the schools to undertake too positive action and to teach difficult and complex issues. The immaturity and limitations of the

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pupils make the introduction of some objectives futile. The reform of international exchange, for example, may be a worthy national purpose, but it would be an unsuitable objective for the elementary schools. Society can and should decide what it would like the schools to do, but the teacher must decide what the pupils are capable of doing.

Many objectives which are proposed for the schools are never accepted by them. Legislatures require special celebrations, the observance of which would disrupt the school program; patriotic societies and pressure groups seek to dictate the purposes of the schools. The teachers must be the eventual judges of the feasibility of an objective. Until and unless they think it can be promoted or achieved through instruction it will not become an educational objective.

An educational objective must be one which is realizable through instruction or through the limited action which is possible in school. The achievement of a social objective calls primarily for action, action by legislatures, organizations, and other groups of adults who are free to act and responsible for their acts. But the achievement of an educational objective calls primarily for instruction. Such action as teachers and pupils can take beyond the schools is fundamentally a method of instruction rather than outright, socially approved action. The primary purpose of the schools is instruction.

PERSONAL VERSUS SOCIAL OBJECTIVES

Throughout the history of American education the emphasis had been placed upon personal objectives. Horace Mann and thousands of others took great pains to show people that it paid to go to school. The greater income of the educated man was contrasted with the poor returns which an unschooled person received. The prevailing philosophy has stressed education because it makes a man a successful doctor, a lawyer who earns big fees, a farmer who can raise paying crops, and a clerk who can become the boss.

During the early development of our country these highly personalized and relatively selfish purposes were stressed in order to secure the establishment of schools. They were perhaps neces-

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sary and even desirable at that stage. Now that the schools are thoroughly established, they should stress more inclusive objectives; now that a complex and interdependent people have occupied the whole country, more socialized objectives deserve greater attention. Fortunately the trend is in that direction. A recent study¹ shows that 77 per cent of the objectives in 1207 courses of study, made in the period 1917-1924, were stated in terms of individual values. By 1939 this percentage had gone down to 60.

It is, of course, possible to reconcile personal and social objectives; there should be no antithesis between them. But when 77 per cent of the declared objectives in the socially centered field of the social studies are stated in terms of individual values, the prospects of creating a cooperative, socially conscious society are not very encouraging. While the solution to the problem of personal or social objectives is certainly not one or the other, it seems desirable to put more stress upon larger, more inclusive purposes.

CLASSES OF EDUCATIONAL OBJECTIVES

Educational objectives in general are statements of the whole purpose of the school. They are frequently divided according to administrative units, as elementary, secondary, and collegiate. The elementary ones are further divided into those for the primary, intermediate, and upper grades.

Educational objectives are also divided on the basis of fields, subjects, and grades. Each grade, subject, and field has usually claimed a large share of all available objectives. If all the objectives sometimes claimed for arithmetic, for example, were actually realizable and realized, there would be little need for other subjects. Each subject has frequently regarded itself as the sole means for realizing all educational objectives. The result is that there is much overlapping and little delimitation. While each subject should contribute to the general educational objectives, no one of them need assume the whole obligation.

A subject or grade should claim, not all possibly realizable objectives, but only those which can best be promoted in that par-

¹ Charles S. Turner, "Changing Content in Elementary Social Studies," *Social Education*, 5:600-603, December, 1941.

ticular subject or grade. The feasibility and appropriateness of the objectives should be judged in terms of the nature of the content and the stage of development of the pupils. All subjects may properly claim that they make contributions to general purposes, such as honesty, patriotism, and ability to solve problems, but a sense of chronology, geographic concepts, and interdependence are peculiarly suited to the social studies.

Objectives are often stated in terms of units, projects, problems, undertakings, or other forms of curricular organization. Such objectives are likely to reflect the contents and activities of the materials; they can thus be quite specific and realistic. In fact, objectives for units are frequently stated with more realism and greater restraint than those for fields, subjects, and grades.

Educational objectives may be further classified on the basis of specific purposes, such as information, skills, habits, attitudes, conduct, loyalties, and abilities. This classification probably fits all subjects and all grade levels and is a useful check for determining the completeness of any list of objectives.

OBJECTIVES REFLECT VALUES

Objectives are chosen on the basis of a sense of values. Whatever a nation or a school considers most worth while will be incorporated in its aims. So objectives rest, not upon statistics or experiments, but upon the ideals, hopes, faith, and values of those who select them.

Even though objectives rest upon choice, it is sometimes desirable and feasible to find out what other schools consider most worth while. So a census of the frequency with which particular objectives appear may be of help in deciding which ones to adopt. Such returns, however, are suggestive and not determinative. In the final analysis the selection of an objective is an act of choice which rests upon a philosophy, a sense of values.

WHO DETERMINES EDUCATIONAL OBJECTIVES?

Neither a nation nor a school can arbitrarily set up educational objectives. The capacities, ages, and limitations of the children act as a restraining force. Society decides what *should* be accomplished; teachers decide what *can* be accomplished. The re-

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sulting adjustment becomes a statement of educational objectives. Thus there are three answers to the question of who determines educational objectives: citizens, teachers, and pupils.

Legislatures, newspapers, pressure groups, and articulate individuals have much to do in selecting the purposes of education. They determine the direction and the desired goals. Teachers, representing and speaking in the name of the pupils, modify, adjust, and restate these social demands. So the teacher has considerable freedom in accepting proposed objectives, and she is under professional obligations to see that the goals are desirable tangible, and feasible.

OBJECTIVES AND THE CURRICULUM

An educational objective is a statement of an aim, a purpose, a goal. It is an end and not a means. Objectives do not clearly foreshadow any particular content. The choice of content is a professional task which requires acute discrimination. The chosen content may or may not lead to the goal.

An objective does not imply an inevitable body of material. Even more certainly, a given body of material does not guarantee a particular outcome. If the study of American history is to result in belief in democracy, it must be so taught as to produce this result. If the study of the Constitution is designed to produce patriotism it must be so taught as to produce this result. Failure to recognize this fact, which is so obvious to teachers, has caused endless confusion among many publicists, legislators, and critics of education.

Failure to distinguish between objectives and the curriculum is the failure to distinguish ends and means. The very existence of the hundreds of laws requiring the teaching of various subjects and topics is striking testimony to the widespread and persistent nature of this confusion. If the people of a state, acting through the legislature, wish the boys and girls to acquire a particular attitude, understanding, or quality they should state their wish in the form of an objective, ideal, or goal, and not in terms of content. Given a particular objective, a teacher can select, at least in time, effective materials, but when given assigned materials she cannot always know even what outcome is expected.

Laws which prescribe content are evidence of the persistence of the popular faith in information. If information is interpreted as an objective, the laws are quite logical and defensible, but their very existence centers attention upon this one overworked and frequently misunderstood objective and obscures larger and more vital ones. Teachers cannot afford to confuse an objective with a curriculum.

PHRASING OF OBJECTIVES

A number of writers have insisted that objectives should be stated in terms of pupil purposes. Perhaps this is a sound psychological precaution, for it tends to keep pupil needs and purposes in the center of attention. Since the teacher is the one to state them, however, and since they inevitably indicate what she intends to do to effect them, it would seem that no serious harm is done by stating them in terms of the teacher. Some educational writers have suggested that statements of objectives be divided into "long-range" and "immediate." If the term "long-range" means "slowly but eventually," and not "perhaps eventually," the classification has some practical value.

It has been suggested that objectives be stated in terms of desired behavior. For example, the objective of democracy would be stated in terms of how democratically disposed pupils would act. This suggestion has merit in that it tends to make the objectives feasible, but if it were followed literally and persistently the form would become as hollow and as verbalistic as the ones which are ordinarily used. Furthermore, this kind of statement seems designed to facilitate evaluation rather than to add any real point to the quality of objectives.

Objectives should command full faith and credit. In whatever form or terms they are stated, they should be clear, direct, sincere, unequivocal, tangible, and achievable.

SOME SPECIMEN OBJECTIVES IN THE SOCIAL STUDIES

Social studies teachers, individually and in committees, should make frequent statements of their objectives. As the contents of this and the preceding chapter show, the selection and statement of educational objectives is a process requiring thought, study,

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and consultation. The results should reflect the ideals of human beings, of the American people, of the state, of the community, and of the school. In addition they should also reflect the latest and soundest scholarship available in each field and subject.

SOCIAL STUDIES OBJECTIVES

1. To read social studies materials with understanding
2. To understand and learn pertinent information
3. To develop desirable traits of character
4. To develop a wholesome personality
5. To acquire the habit of courtesy
6. To cooperate cheerfully and effectively
7. To contribute to the happiness of the home
8. To participate in group activities
9. To understand the interdependence of peoples
10. To appreciate the services of others
11. To assume responsibility
12. To choose and prepare for a vocation
13. To become a judicious consumer
14. To become a participating citizen
15. To meet civic responsibilities
16. To understand social organizations and processes
17. To exercise critical faculties
18. To tolerate others and their beliefs
19. To conserve resources
20. To respect all nationalities, races, and groups
21. To promote world fellowship
22. To uphold and promote democracy
23. To enjoy wholesome recreation
24. To cultivate intellectual interests
25. To appreciate esthetic products

OBJECTIVES IN STUDYING HISTORY

1. To understand historical concepts
2. To identify great leaders
3. To develop a sense of continuity
4. To develop a sense of chronology
5. To appreciate the contributions from the past
6. To acquire a background for understanding the present
7. To learn the techniques of finding materials
8. To learn the historical method

9. To discriminate among authorities
10. To compare and evaluate conflicting evidence
11. To develop the capacity of suspended judgment
12. To develop an objective attitude
13. To understand relationships
14. To understand and make generalizations
15. To appreciate the great documents of the past
16. To build a solid basis for patriotism
17. To broaden and expand interests and sympathies
18. To learn how to organize materials
19. To understand the enduring elements from the past
20. To understand how man has utilized his resources

OBJECTIVES IN STUDYING GEOGRAPHY

1. To understand how environment affects man
2. To learn how man has modified his environment
3. To appreciate man's interdependence
4. To see the value of the exchange of goods
5. To understand the principle of the division of labor
6. To develop a sympathy for other peoples and groups
7. To appreciate the wide distribution of natural resources
8. To learn the value of conservation
9. To understand phenomena about the earth
10. To use maps, globes, and other aids
11. To learn the main facts about different occupations
12. To understand natural forces, such as weather, seasons, tides
13. To understand migrations of peoples
14. To appreciate the values of travel
15. To acquire geographic concepts

OBJECTIVES IN STUDYING CIVICS

1. To understand the need of government
2. To learn the structure of government
3. To learn how candidates are elected
4. To understand parties and their activities
5. To understand how public opinion is formed
6. To learn how nations cooperate
7. To learn what our diplomats and consuls do
8. To acquire proper civic attitudes
9. To learn what becomes of taxes
10. To understand how laws are made

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11. To understand how courts function
12. To understand penalties
13. To learn civic duties
14. To understand public issues and problems
15. To strengthen faith in democracy

EXPECTED OUTCOMES

Another viewpoint on objectives may be acquired by stating them in terms of expected outcomes. The following may be suggestive of many others that could be listed.

I. *Skills and Information*

1. Reads, writes, speaks, and listens effectively
2. Utilizes aids to locating and using materials
3. Learns how to use a book effectively
4. Uses maps, graphs, charts, and tables
5. Acquires basic information and utilizes it

II. *Civic Attitudes*

1. Understands democracy and practices democratic procedures
2. Understands and claims the rights of a citizen
3. Recognizes and accepts civic responsibilities
4. Studies public issues — local, state, national, and international

III. *Scientific Attitudes*

1. Discovers problems
2. Discovers various sources of information
3. Utilizes various kinds of information
4. Weighs evidence
5. Classifies data
6. Experiments
7. Analyzes and evaluates
8. Draws tentative conclusions

IV. *Social Competence*

1. Recognizes the rights of others
2. Respects persons regardless of color, religion, or class
3. Helps and accepts help
4. Expresses opinions and listens to opinions
5. Criticizes and accepts criticism
6. Accepts group decisions
7. Accepts responsibility at home, at school, and in groups
8. Respects property, both private and public

FUNCTIONS AND OBJECTIVES OF THE SOCIAL STUDIES

9. Demonstrates initiative and independence
10. Encourages and commends others
11. Assumes leadership and accepts fellowship
12. Accepts and upholds standards
13. Becomes trustworthy
14. Shares possessions
15. Follows directions

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That automatic, unquestioning obedience in a democracy is a defect, not a virtue, is the thesis of this article. Required obedience precludes the development of loyalties to the group. There must be free choices if loyalties are to develop. There must be interaction, not domination. Obedience is necessary in the early stages of a child's growth, for it is a protection against obvious dangers, such as being run over in the street. "The safety wall of obedience should give every child a protective surrounding where he needs it and as long as he needs it; but it should be kept as a wall, to be removed as rapidly as possible, never to be grafted into the child's personality as an irrevocable barrier to inventiveness and self-confidence." A thoughtful and penetrating analysis. Basic for training in democratic living.

Part 4

CONTENTS AND ACTIVITIES
OF THE SOCIAL STUDIES

10. NATURE AND GROWTH OF THE SOCIAL STUDIES CURRICULUM

THE CURRICULUM DEFINED

The curriculum consists of those pupil experiences that come under the guidance of the school. The study of the community, a committee meeting, United States history, a field trip, preparing for a school party, life in Norway, a supervised game of tag, and the services of the city government are all legitimate parts of the social studies curriculum. These examples include activities and studies; both are necessary elements of a curriculum.

For the sake of clarity it is well to emphasize the phrase "guidance of the school." The curriculum is an educational instrument, planned and used by the school to effect its purposes. The child learns at home, at church, and in other environments, and these experiences promote his progress in school; but to make the word *curriculum* include the whole life of the child is sentimental confusion. The word is an educational term and should be so used. If it is stretched to include everything in general, it will soon come to mean nothing in particular.

The curriculum should not be confused with courses of study, textbooks, or lists of units. These three forms are all parts of the curriculum because they prescribe "materials and activities which the school employs for the purpose of training children." The course of study lists much of the content and indicates many activities, but it is only a part of the curriculum. Much of the functioning curriculum is contributed by teachers and pupils and is not recorded in any textbook, syllabus, or course of study. Curriculum is the inclusive term and should not be used as a synonym for one of its subdivisions.

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SOCIAL CHANGE AND THE CURRICULUM

Education has three major functions: (1) to appraise the social heritage, (2) to transmit selected portions of it to the oncoming generation, and (3) to direct social development so that the heritage will be increased.

The person who inherits the contents of a house will naturally be eager to claim his heritage. However, he will want to exercise the right to select, to pass judgment upon the value and desirability of the articles. Some he will claim eagerly; some he will reject; some he will preserve temporarily and reject later; and others he will tentatively reject and later reclaim. Those articles which he values highly he will care for and pass on to his heirs. In the meantime he will plan to add to what he has inherited and to bequeath an improved and enlarged heritage.

Individuals and institutions, including the schools, are engaged in this process of (1) evaluating, (2) transmitting, and (3) enlarging the social heritage. No one person or institution is capable of acting as the sole guardian of society, of carrying on this process alone. The family, for example, evaluates, selects, transmits, and plans for its members. The church, the state, industry, and other social institutions also participate in this process.

In the case of young people, the schools are charged with the special responsibility of selecting, transmitting, and enlarging those portions of the culture which are appropriate to their stage of growth. Thus no teacher, least of all a social studies teacher, can escape the responsibility of being an alert student of social developments. She cannot select wisely, teach effectively, or plan with foresight unless she keeps abreast of social changes. This obligation rests with peculiar weight upon the elementary social studies teacher, because what she selects or neglects has a cumulative effect upon the pupils as they advance to the upper grades.

The curriculum at any particular date is the result of the tentative judgment of educators as to what is most worthy of being transmitted to the boys and girls. All that comes to us from the preceding generation is not gold; some of it is base metal. The person who gratefully accepts the whole heritage is lacking in

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discrimination; the teacher who accepts a proposed curriculum as fixed or static is shirking a professional responsibility. As society changes the curriculum must change.

MAKING AND REVISING A CURRICULUM

Many different procedures are used in making curriculums. For several decades the process involved a meeting of scholars and the recording of what they thought children should study. Then the procedure was slowly developed into city-wide and state-wide movements involving many committees and subcommittees. Recently the trend is toward the selection of smaller committees whose members call upon and utilize as many teachers of the field as possible. Finally, and not least important, the teacher herself makes her own curriculum, or she at least so modifies the official one as to reflect her own experience and judgment.

The terminology of curriculum making has been considered important by some writers. Some insist that the curriculum grows, evolves, or develops, that it is not a *product* but a *process*. While this viewpoint has psychological value, it is unrealistic and not altogether accurate. The person who admits that he *makes* a curriculum also insists that it grows, that its use involves a process. This is another instance in which full faith and credit should be given to sincere workers, even though they do not use the approved terminology.

The curriculum should be revised frequently and modified continually. Formal revisions should be made whenever the course of events outmodes the existing one. The school which used the same program in 1935 which it had in 1928 was obviously behind social developments. Whether the same may be said respecting 1945 and 1952 is a matter of opinion. If continual modifications are made and recorded, it is probable that noticeable differences will appear within three or four years. The greatest value in curriculum making is probably the effect it has in quickening the teacher's interest in content, methods, and child development. A formal revision also facilitates the superintendent's efforts to win public support and approval, and it also helps the new teacher to adjust herself to the school.

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A simple technique for revision, and one which any committee of social studies teachers can apply expeditiously, is as follows: Go through every item in the outline of studies and mark the relevant parts with the following symbols:

D = delete

N = new items, sections, or units

Mx = maximize. Expand the present treatment.

Mn = minimize. Lessen the amount of emphasis.

Each of these symbols should be applied to single items, to sections, to topics, and to whole units. The alert and conscientious committee can keep the program within bounds by the free use of D and Mn. The sum total of these two should certainly equal that of N and Mx.

THE QUESTION OF TRANSFER IN THE CURRICULUM

The curriculum maker should try to select items which have the greatest transfer value. This suggestion means that a fact, topic, generalization, or principle which appears in various units or subjects is more important than one which appears only once. If, in addition, this element has wide social utility, it is doubly desirable that it be recognized as fully as possible in the curriculum. For example, the topic of transportation is important in civics, American history, and elementary economics. In addition, it unquestionably has wide social importance. (For a fuller discussion of this problem see Chapter 15.)

The psychological problem concerning the transfer of training has been solved. Identical elements and methods, skills, techniques, and various other types of procedures have a high transfer value. In fact, the social situation into which they are carried may call merely for a repetition of the procedure used in class. And when the situation calls for the use of some steps of the procedure or for some modification of it, the transfer value is still very high. For example, the pupil who learns how to find and use the sources in order to list the products of Switzerland will, in all probability, be able when employed in a shoe firm to ascertain the facts about leather production in Argentina. Naturally the two problems are not identical, but they are similar enough to

enable the former pupil, utilizing his previous training, to perform the new assignment.

THE QUESTION OF MINIMUM ESSENTIALS

A basic and persistent question in curriculum making is that of minimum essentials. Are there basic, fundamental elements which are indispensable to the learning of history or geography or the whole field of the social studies? It is highly important that the curriculum maker — and all teachers are makers of the curriculum — understand the question.

At the outset it is well to distinguish between essential skills and essential content. Finding a word in the dictionary, reading a map, using an encyclopedia, outlining an essay, and various other techniques of study are regarded as so essential as to be required of everyone. Skills which are to be used again and again automatically become essentials. The question for consideration, however, relates not to skills, but to content. Are there some names, dates, events, places, facts, or principles which constitute a minimum core of content, the mastery of which determines subsequent progress in the subject?

Suppose that two scholars were asked to list the one hundred basic events in American history, for example. From the standpoint of the scholar there are hundreds of basic facts, facts so relevant, so intertwined with trends and movements, as to be indispensable for even a primary understanding of the subject. The scholars could easily list a dozen without stopping to think — 1492, Missouri Compromise, Populists, Homestead Riot, direct election of senators, New Freedom, Muckrakers, 1858, Birney, *Uncle Tom's Cabin*, etc. This list could be expanded enormously. But suppose one scholar is a specialist in the history of the West. Would his list of minimum essentials be acceptable and necessary to a scholar who specializes in the colonial period? Clearly, the two lists of essentials would differ. What one regards as *basic*, the other would regard as *incidental*. Are there then any minima for a particular person?

It is a familiar fact that two individuals, both of whom are intelligent, cultivated, and well informed, differ widely in the details of their knowledge. They apparently arrive at the same goal of

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general competence by very different routes. From the standpoint of individual development there appear then to be no minima. What was vital, useful, and indispensable to one may have been only incidental or even nonexistent for the other. So the question of minimum essentials is not a logical or a psychological question; it is a question of social utility.

The essentialness or indispensability of a fact, name, or item in American history is determined, not by the nature of the subject, not by the logic of reasoning, not by the requirements of the learning process, but primarily by its social utility. If the name of Lincoln appears oftener than Polk, then the former comes nearer being an essential than the latter. Thus the determination of minimum essentials becomes a problem of research. It can now be stated: What items from American history are most frequently utilized? The answer to this question furnishes the core content, the irreducible minimum, the most functional body of materials.

Since inclusive and definitive research to ascertain the minima of a subject cannot be made repeatedly, the teacher must have practicable guides or principles to help her decide what knowledge is of most worth. She can compile a list of types of materials, such as elections, explorations, settlements, etc. The mastery of any one of the types will afford an understanding which transfers to others of the same type.

For example, suppose that one pupil knows the geography of Norway and another knows that of Holland. Each may have a fairly adequate understanding of major geographic factors. It is essential that everyone knows some areas well enough to see the interrelations between environment and human activity. One pupil may know Daniel Boone and another may know Jedediah Smith. Each has some understanding of Western exploration. But it is *essential* that everyone know *some* explorer. One pupil may know the settlement of Pennsylvania and another that of Connecticut. Each may have a passable knowledge of colonial settlement. But it is *essential* that everyone know *some* colony.

Without research or even much contemplation a teacher knows that U. S. Grant is mentioned oftener than William H. Crawford, that 1823 is more frequently cited than 1838. It is well, however,

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for the teacher to study the various lists of content which show the items of greatest frequency. In American history, for example, there are the lists of persons, events, and dates recommended by the Committee on American History in Schools and Colleges (see Bibliography). In the field of vocabulary there are also many lists of the most frequent words. Thus by utilizing her own experience and by consulting the studies which have been made the teacher can answer the question of minimum essentials.

GROWTH OF THE SOCIAL STUDIES CURRICULUM

The social studies program of the elementary schools is the product of many forces operating over a long period of years. The study of government, history, and geography in our schools began even before the Constitution was written. Their contents and grade locations have changed many times. It would not be profitable to follow the details of the history of each of the social studies, but a summary review of the evolution of the whole *field* will show one of the most significant developments in American education, namely the writing of the curriculum by teachers.

By way of summary it may be said that the social studies program of the last fifty years has been written mainly by three groups: (1) educators, especially administrators and professors of education, (2) social scientists, especially historians, and (3) teachers. All three groups have worked through committees of national and state organizations, but the third group has achieved its most tangible results right in the classroom. The educators and social scientists have publicized their plans through yearbooks and reports, and the teachers, through courses of study.

The work of the National Education Association in making the social studies program dates from 1892 when a committee drew up a plan for all the grades. For the elementary schools it recommended biography, mythology, American history, civil government, and Greek and Roman history. In 1895 another committee of the Association recommended oral lessons in general history and biography for the eight years of the elementary school. In addition, it called for the teaching of United States history in Grade VII and the Constitution of the United States in the last half of Grade VIII. For forty years following the report of 1895

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the Association gave the social studies program only incidental attention. In 1936 the superintendents devoted a yearbook to it, but it was a descriptive, factual survey and recommended no program.

Educators, acting under the sponsorship of the National Society for the Study of Education, gave the social studies sporadic attention. The society's yearbooks of 1902 and 1903 recommended a program, the chief point of which was the study of occupations. Starting with food, clothing, and shelter in Grade I, the program listed the major economic activities in the order of ascending complexity, ending with printing in Grade VII and metal work in Grade VIII. Yearbooks of 1915 and 1917 were devoted to the minimum essentials of history, geography, and civics. Some of these lists of minimum content were derived from objective research. This trend toward enumeration and objectivity was greatly augmented by the work of Harold Rugg and his students. The society's yearbook of 1923 presented several alternative programs and thus popularized the idea of freedom of choice for schools. This idea was destined to become very influential and to lead to the present stage of bewildering diversity in curriculum making. The society's yearbook of 1933 was devoted to geography. It tended to stress subject matter consciousness and so made little contribution to the development of the social studies as a field.

THE SOCIAL SCIENTISTS AS CURRICULUM MAKERS

Another group which has been exceedingly active in the making of the social studies program is composed of social scientists, chiefly historians and political scientists. Prior to about 1920 the historians had more influence on the social studies program than the educators. Historians dominated the report of 1892, even though the committee was set up by the National Education Association. In 1899 the American Historical Association published a report which had a determinative effect upon history in the high schools. Lucy M. Salmon prepared a program for the elementary schools as a part of the report. It is interesting now, because it shows the gulf which then separated historians and children. It was as follows:

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- GRADE III Stories from literature and legends
- GRADE IV Biographies of historical characters
- GRADE V Greek and Roman history to 800 A.D.
- GRADE VI Medieval and modern history
- GRADE VII English history
- GRADE VIII American history

In 1908 the historians made a study of the elementary program and recommended the following:

- GRADE I Indian life, Thanksgiving, Washington's birthday, local events
- GRADE II Indian life, Thanksgiving, Washington's birthday, local events, Memorial Day
- GRADE III Heroes of other times, Columbus, Indians, July 4
- GRADE IV American explorers, Virginia life, New England life, local pioneers, Washington, Franklin
- GRADE V Colonial heroes, the Revolution, the Great West, the early republic
- GRADE VI European setting, early inventions, Greek, Roman, and medieval geography and history, discoveries and explorations
- GRADE VII Colonial history, the Revolution
- GRADE VIII American history, 1787-1876. Some recent European history

The recommendation for Grade VI was quite new. It quickly became popular under the title "European Background of American History." But the report as a whole had far less effect upon elementary practice than the one of 1899 had upon high school courses.

In 1921 the report of a committee of historians recommended the following program:

- GRADE I The making of the community
- GRADE II The making of the United States
- GRADE III How Europeans found our continent and what they did with it
- GRADE IV How Englishmen became Americans, 1607-1783
- GRADE V The United States, 1783-1877
- GRADE VI United States since 1877; how we are governed
- GRADE VII The world before 1607, including Spanish America

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GRADE VIII The world since 1607, with emphasis upon the economic and social history of the United States

The Commission on the Social Studies of the American Historical Association issued its report in sixteen volumes from 1932 to 1937. This Commission, headed by A. C. Krey of the University of Minnesota, was composed of historians, geographers, sociologists, economists, political scientists, and educators. Various volumes of the report added greatly to the development of the social studies field. Several of them are cited in various chapters of this book. From the standpoint of the history of the curriculum, however, the report had little effect, for no program was outlined or recommended.

In 1944 the historians and educators issued a report on American history which contains the most specific outline of content ever recommended by a national committee. In the middle grades (IV, V, VI) American history should, according to this report, stress the period before 1789. Six topics, ten dates and events, twenty-one names of persons, a few concepts, and several skills were specifically recommended for emphasis.

The political scientists were also interested in the social studies curriculum. In 1908 a committee recommended informal talks on government for Grades V, VI, and VII, and a half year course for Grade VIII. A more extensive report was issued in 1916. It recommended that "civic virtues" be taught in the primary grades (I, II, and III), functions of local government in Grades IV-VI, and a formal course in community civics for Grades VII, VIII, and IX. Economists, geographers, sociologists, and others have from time to time made recommendations as to the proper content of the social studies program.

TEACHERS AS CURRICULUM MAKERS

The third group which is active in making the social studies program is composed of teachers. Led and encouraged by teachers colleges, state departments of education, and superintendents in larger cities, the teachers have gradually assumed the major share of curriculum making. While the reports of national committees and yearbooks of educational associations continue to ex-

ert great influence, the actual construction of programs is being done by committees of teachers. And while the daily changes made by individual teachers in their classrooms are seldom recorded, they are slowly becoming the actual curriculum. In fact, under the guidance of the teacher, the curriculum of each child within a class differs in accordance with his experiences and activities.

This brief review of the development of the social studies program reveals a prolonged conflict between the proponents of formal, organized content of an adult type and the defenders of children. The educators and teachers are winning the battle. The era during which a group of scholars could meet for a conference and draw up a program for pupils has passed. The teacher has assumed the responsibility of developing the program. This new responsibility has brought a new realization of the importance of information, accuracy, and scholarship. More reliable as well as more teachable materials are being presented to boys and girls. The challenge to the teacher is, not to win the right to prepare her own materials, but to produce those which will demonstrate that she is worthy of the right which she has already won.

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See Chapter VI for lists of minimal essentials for various grade levels.

11. SELECTING MATERIALS AND ACTIVITIES

THE PROBLEM OF SELECTION

Almost any fact or activity may have curricular value, but the construction of a curriculum that has maximum value requires the utilization of valid principles of selection. There are levels of social importance among the materials that might be used for instructional purposes. Hence it is important that the best formulas for selection be used. The search for them is the problem of this chapter.

The first requirement of a curriculum is that it lead to a realization of the objectives. Presumably, each subject, unit, topic, or item has an educational function. It is supposed to contribute to the major purposes. One of the objectives stated in Chapter 9 is "to participate in group activities"; another is "to uphold and promote democracy." Some curricular materials which are specifically designed to promote these objectives should be selected. It should be possible to single out such materials. To achieve the first objective, teachers must see that pupils have opportunities to plan, work, and play together as groups, that they develop a social awareness of one another. To promote the second objective, the teacher might well choose portions of American history or civics and so teach them as to promote democracy. In brief, there must be a discernible connection between materials and objectives.

The problem of selection is not merely one of finding suitable materials the mastery of which leads to the achievement of the objectives. That result could rather assuredly be achieved through a great variety of available content. The critical, the limiting factor is the immaturity and inexperience of children;

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therefore the materials must appeal to them and be within their grasp; otherwise the content is valueless to them, no matter how fundamental it may be for society.

The requirement that the curricular content must have meaning and appeal for the pupils cannot be treated lightly. If it lacks such qualities they will not, probably cannot, learn it. The scholar, social reformer, and legislator who undertake to make a curriculum are likely to overlook this fundamental requirement. They tend to look only at society's needs, and forgetting the limitations of immaturity, they assign tasks and set standards which, however desirable socially, are unworkable in the schools. The teachers alone understand this principle. It is their duty to see that the curriculum meets, so far as possible, adult requirements; but it is even more incumbent upon them to see that it is adjusted to the interests and capacities of boys and girls.

GENERAL PRINCIPLES OF CURRICULUM SELECTION

The discovery and application of sound principles will presumably result in the selection of content for the curriculum. How can we know what knowledge will be of most worth to the child while he is still a child and what habits, skills, attitudes, and generalizations may be expected to carry over into adulthood? Attempts to answer this question have resulted in such suggestions as *utility*, *individual needs*, *social needs*, *civic needs*, *interests*, *learnability*, and *accuracy*. Each of them deserves a brief examination.

The one principle of *utility*, if broadly conceived, includes *individual*, *social*, and *civic* needs. If the teacher could look into the future and anticipate the career and performance of a pupil she could, of course, provide rather definite training. Since no individual and no teacher knows what the future will require, they must study past situations and current developments and forecast as best they can what might be needed in the future. But it is easier to identify present needs of children. If teachers provide adequately for present needs, the future will, to a considerable extent, take care of itself.

As individuals the pupils need protection, a sense of security at home and in school, affection, praise and encouragement, com-

panions and friends, social approval, some prestige, a sense of status or belonging, some success, a feeling of likeness to others. A recognition of these needs by the teacher furnishes some guidance as to what to select for the curriculum. It must be confessed, however, that these needs point to no particular content, to no specific activities; they are general principles which are helpful but not very determinative.

The principle of *social needs* is also general and somewhat vague. One can see instantly that society will expect everyone to know how to write, speak, sing, and play, but whether or not society will require that he write laws, serve in the army, heal the sick, rear children, pilot airplanes, or preach the gospel is beyond the view of the teacher. The principle of social needs as a guide to curricular selection is perfectly sound, but it does not tell the teacher whether to teach a unit on Norway or on airplanes, whether to emphasize Peru or conservation, whether to stress cooperative buying or advertising. In other words, the principle of social needs is inarticulate; it is an idea, perhaps an ideal, but it is not a technique for the selection of curricular materials. It is like an oracle—it gives whatever answer the seeker expects. Consult *social needs*, but do not expect any very definite or even intelligible answers.

The use of *civic needs* as a principle of selection is somewhat more tangible than social needs, because it indicates a more limited area of activity. But even here the teacher will not know whether to stress sanitation or safety, city services or law enforcement. Since civic needs cover a smaller area than social needs the principle will more frequently become an actual criterion, but it is still a broad general idea or standard and not a guide for the teacher.

Interest as a principle of selection has only ephemeral value. The interests of a group of children grow out of their needs; thus interest, so far as it is a valid principle, merely reflects needs. Interests can be created or aroused. The teacher can, for example, create an interest in the prayer wheel of a lamaic priest, but the mere presence of such an interest is no proof that the topic should be taught. Interests are indispensable in teaching: they are of enormous value in motivation; they serve as approaches;

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but as a principle for selecting curricular content, they have little value.

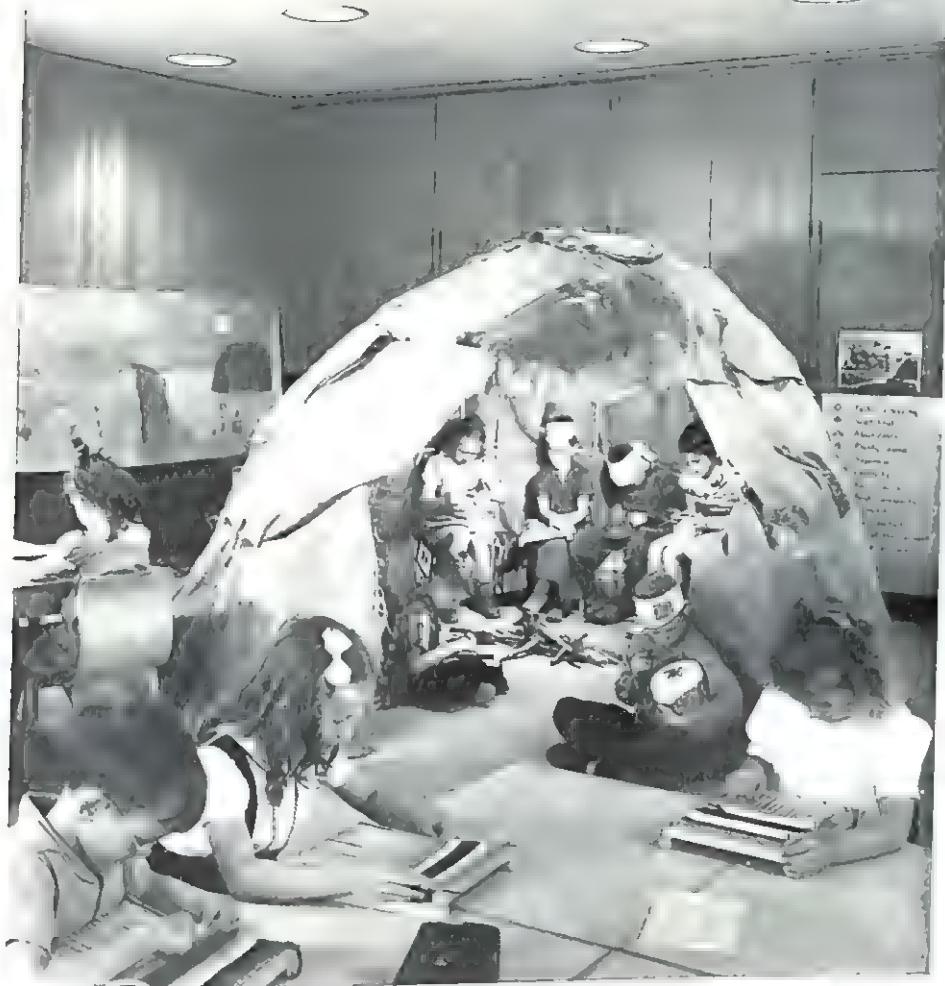
Learnability is sometimes mentioned as a principle for selecting materials and activities for the curriculum. For this purpose it has little value. Thousands of items are learnable, and so the principle affords no basis for choosing when so many items qualify. From a practical standpoint it is more realistic to regard *learnability* as a principle of rejection. If on all other grounds a particular item seems destined for the curriculum the test of learnability should be applied. If the proposed item is not learnable, it should be discarded.

Accuracy is sometimes regarded as a principle of selection. Here also, the principle has little practical value, for thousands of materials will meet the standard. For those that do not, *accuracy* becomes a criterion for rejection. Thus, like learnability, it has negative rather than positive value in making a curriculum.

It appears, then, that the general principles of utility (individual, social, and civic needs), interests, learnability, and accuracy provide almost no specific guidance in selecting materials and activities for the curriculum. Everyone approves these principles, but no one can do very much with them. They belong in the same general category with such admonitions as "do what is right," "play safe," "don't venture too far," and "watch out for the future." Everyone recognizes the good will behind these phrases; they may even engender a certain amount of caution or help build up attitudes, but they do not afford specific guidance in a particular situation. Similarly, utility, interests, etc., are encouraging and reassuring, but they do not supply concrete help in choosing materials for the curriculum.

SPECIFIC CRITERIA FOR SELECTING MATERIALS

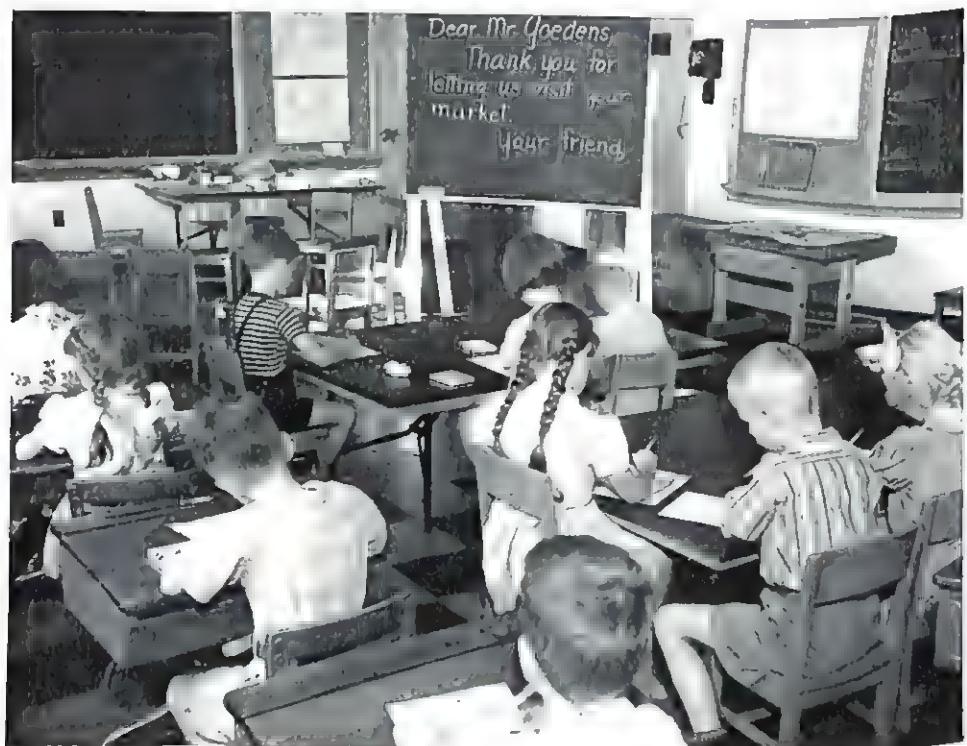
Since general principles, however sound and desirable, do not point the way to curriculum making, it is necessary to find specific criteria which will furnish such guidance. For this purpose several criteria have been found and utilized. The principal ones are (1) textbooks, (2) courses of study, (3) committee reports, (4) opinions of selected groups, (5) frequency of mention and space allotment, (6) analysis of qualities and duties, (7) activities



THE MOST SUCCESSFUL UNITS TERMINATE IN AN EXPERIENCE
THAT INTEGRATES THE MATERIALS WHICH HAVE BEEN USED.



AUDIO-VISUAL MATERIALS PROVIDE OPPORTUNITIES
FOR PUPIL PARTICIPATION.



SOME PUPILS WANT TO EXPRESS THEIR APPRECIATION FOR
THE OPPORTUNITIES WHICH THEIR COMMUNITY HAS PRO-
VIDED FOR THEM.

and preferences of children, (8) deficiencies, and (9) word lists. In addition to these criteria there are a few formulas which utilize combinations of various principles and criteria. The criteria are discussed in this section, and the formulas will be described in succeeding sections.

1. **TEXTBOOKS.** For generations textbooks not only supplied most of the materials for the curriculum; for all practical purposes they *were* the curriculum. Textbooks have been written by alert and energetic persons who are often competent scholars and sometimes good teachers. In writing textbooks, authors are willingly influenced by current practices, courses of study, and committee reports; consequently their products often reflect the best and most recent advances in education. Textbooks have been improved in organization, style, teaching aids, and general attractiveness. They are exceedingly useful tools of instruction.

Textbooks are not designed, however, to be the whole curriculum. They are necessarily restricted in scope and make no pretense of providing all the contents and activities that are necessary for an enriched curriculum. A textbook curriculum ignores child experiences and is meager even in information because it is inevitably general rather than specific, national rather than local, and content centered, rather than child centered, in its approach. So the textbook should be regarded as a part of the curriculum and not as a source for making it. It is subsidiary and supplementary, rather than primary and fundamental. It is the curriculum only when administrators and teachers have failed to make a better, more inclusive program.

2. **COURSES OF STUDY.** Courses of study provide many materials and ideas for making a curriculum. They are, if properly constructed, more inclusive than textbooks. Within the city or state which produces them, courses of study naturally reflect local conditions and ideas, many of which are not suitable for other communities. For example, some years ago a midwestern farming state appropriated whole sections of the state program of Vermont. Such wholesale borrowing is not a very commendable procedure for making a curriculum. Perhaps the most serious objection to using courses of study as sources of the curriculum is the fact that they *are* the curriculum as nearly as it is ever recorded.

The use of other courses of study for the purposes of securing ideas, sensing trends, and making comparisons is proper and desirable, but they should not be regarded as storehouses of materials which can be appropriated. Fortunately, the practice of utilizing courses of study for this purpose has practically disappeared. Each community has developed a consciousness of its own uniqueness, and the school staff has too much pride to borrow from other systems and too much sensitivity to overlook the resources of their own community.

3. COMMITTEE REPORTS. The reports of national committees, as noted in Chapter 10, formerly played a very important role in curriculum making. In fact, for years the committees of the American Historical Association indicated the scope, organization, and grading of the history program. Other associations helped to formulate the programs in geography and civics. The specific reports which included lists of subjects by grades and the major topics within each subject have almost disappeared. The Krey report, 1932-1937, consisting of sixteen volumes, did not indicate a program. It did furnish some thoughtful volumes and contributed enormously to the growth of teachers and the enlargement of the whole field. Once very influential, the reports of national committees are too few and too general to be of much consequence in the social studies. Perhaps the one exception of recent years is the report on American history (see Bibliography).

4. OPINIONS OF SELECTED GROUPS. The composite opinions of experienced teachers as to what should be and can be taught constitute a good criterion. Such a survey would reflect the professional judgment of a competent group. Their list of curricular content would certainly have value from the standpoint of what *can* be taught. If these opinions were supplemented by the opinions of selected citizens, such as lawyers, doctors, clerks, civil service workers, laborers, etc., as to what *should* be taught, one would have a fairly reliable index to both professional and social opinion. While this criterion requires extensive and repeated research if performed on a national scale, it can be used locally on a small scale without much trouble or expense. Such local findings may have little validity beyond the community, but they would be useful for the local teachers. This is a technique which

deserves more frequent and more extensive use than it has received.

5. FREQUENCY OF MENTION. To ascertain the utility of various topics, some studies based upon frequency of mention in selected sources have been made. If, for example, Eisenhower, manganese, United Nations, the atomic bomb, freight rates, and Honshu show great frequency, they should, according to this technique, certainly be included in the curriculum. The results from such a survey would be affected by the sources selected, the period chosen, the length of time, the completeness of the count, and how the results were treated. Perhaps the most representative sources for a particular community would be the local paper, a national daily, a popular magazine, a critical magazine, and ten or twenty thoughtful books. This technique implies a parallelism of words and topics which is probably unwarranted; its results are only temporarily valid; it would exclude fundamental topics which are *not* much discussed during the period. The use of *space* rather than frequency would seem to give more valid results, especially with respect to problems, issues, trends, and movements. The extent of discussion is possibly a more reliable index of importance than frequency alone.

6. ANALYSIS OF QUALITIES AND DUTIES. The idea of trying to describe the "good citizen" or the "efficient man" has resulted in blueprints for producing such persons. While it is possible to list the most desirable qualities, they point to no curricular materials. Thus this so-called technique of selection turns out to be merely a list of objectives. The procedure may result in a clear picture of the ideal citizen but it offers no tangible guidance in selecting materials to produce him.

The idea of trying to identify the requirements of a particular job, position, or profession is a somewhat more tangible plan. This criterion seems to apply to mechanical jobs, where the emphasis is upon the process and the product and not upon the worker himself. In the social studies, however, the purpose is to produce competent and civic-minded citizens. While the analysis technique may be helpful in determining present standards and practices it scarcely furnishes even an ideal, and certainly it does not identify the most desirable materials for the social stu-

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ies. The whole technique of analysis results merely in lists of more or less isolated steps or acts which indicate standards or goals, rather than content. Analysis results in fragmentation, whereas curriculum making is a synthetic process.

7. ACTIVITIES AND PREFERENCES OF CHILDREN. A study of the natural activities and preferences of children presumably leads to the selection of pertinent materials. This technique, however, is designed to insure the selection of materials which interest and appeal to children, rather than those which also meet social requirements. Thus it becomes a negative technique, one which points to the exclusion of contents which do not meet this standard, rather than to the identification of materials which should be included. As a professional criterion for insuring the pedagogical efficacy of selected items it has merit. It should be applied to the materials which have already met other criteria, but it is not for general application. In brief, it is a secondary and not a primary procedure for making a curriculum.

8. DEFICIENCIES. Social, professional, and personal *deficiencies* have been suggested as criteria for selecting the content of the curriculum. A study of social conduct would show the blunders and errors in social behavior, the ignorance of etiquette and manners; a study of domestic discord would show the deficiencies of husbands and wives; a study of lawsuits would reveal the gaps of ignorance of the litigants; a study of business failures would show the gaps in the training of the businessmen; a study of the inadequacies of doctors would show wherein their training might be improved. Studies of deficiencies offer a suggestive approach. They may show what materials should be emphasized more or added in case they are not in the curriculum. It is probable that personal factors and social situations far removed from the curriculum also play a large part in deficiencies. Hence changes in the curriculum may be only part of the process of removing them.

9. WORD LISTS. A number of special vocabularies in civics, American history, geography, and the social studies have been compiled. Presumably, these words point to materials which should be in the curriculum. If the lists are valid they do offer a tangible approach to selection. Most of them, however, were derived from existing curricula; so the lists may be simply mirrors

of practice rather than guideposts to action. Even so, they offer some guidance. The greatest difficulty is to put them to use and to study them in context rather than as isolated concepts. In isolation they scarcely indicate a curriculum (see Chapter 12).

This survey of criteria shows that all of them are suggestive and useful, but most of them are difficult to apply. In fact, some of them would, if put into serious operation, cost enormous sums of money. The curriculum maker cannot wait for the unlikely day when the results of such researches will be available. So she is still looking for some tangible and applicable principle, criterion, formula, or procedure which will guide her along the path through the mass of materials to a tangible content.

FORMULAS FOR SELECTING SOCIAL STUDIES UNITS

Upon her entry into a teaching position the teacher has a right to assume that she will find a curriculum, one which has structure and at the same time flexibility. She can ordinarily assume that some studying and planning have been done, that some of the research concerning children and the social studies field has already been incorporated into the program. She will also find that the system has already adopted some over-all principle or guiding criterion for selecting units.

The fact that much work precedes her entry does not imply a static situation. She will certainly want freedom to operate within the limits of the existing framework and she has a right to expect it. This freedom should surely include some choice of units and no restrictions upon choice of methods. After a period of orientation the ambitious teacher may want to urge a general revision of the whole field. But before advocating wholesale revisions or even minor changes the teacher should make a careful study of the curriculum and of the over-all formula. This formula is based upon much thinking and considerable experience.

The most frequently employed formulas for selecting units and insuring some degree of completeness and a logical sequence of materials are (1) the subject, (2) comparative cultures, (3) the concept-process approach, (4) areas of living, (5) generalizations, and (6) problems. Each of these deserves consideration.

THE SUBJECT FORMULA FOR SELECTING UNITS

While the unit has become the established form of organization in the elementary school, subjects have by no means lost their vitality or usefulness. Many teachers feel that the subject, being old, well established, and amply documented, still furnishes a logical structure and a guiding thread for selecting the contents of the social studies. A workable plan for combining units and subjects or of using subject outlines in choosing and making units has been evolved. It is here designated as the subject formula for selecting units. In application the subject formula results in a fairly complete survey of the subject.

In American history, for example, the series of units tend to follow a chronological-topical order. The following are typical:

1. How European people discovered the New World	7. Making a living
2. Europeans become Americans	8. Disunion and reunion
3. Life in colonial times	9. Transportation makes one country
4. Americans throw off British control	10. Becoming a member of the world
5. Building a new government	11. Improving the ways of living
6. Moving West	

These unit titles are often stated in fuller phrases and they are divided into numerous sections.

In the study of the Old World, the subject formula enables the teacher to select units with a minimum of trouble and time. Egypt, the Ancient Orient, Greece, Rome, and the Middle Ages can be studied in large units or divided into topical units of smaller proportions.

Geography furnishes an equally well-established sequence for units. Whether the area is the United States, North America, South America, the Western Hemisphere, Europe, Asia, or Africa, or combinations of these, the formula enables the teacher to follow a somewhat traditional pattern.

In civics the pattern is less well defined, but the contents of even an advanced civics, such as is used in Grade IX, supplies materials and ideas for the making of simple, well-organized

units. The functions of government, especially its services in the community, some forms of taxation, elections and representation, and simple instances of law enforcement through the police provide the ideas for units.

Economics and sociology, as subjects, seldom furnish any specific guidance in the elementary school. They are not ordinarily a part of the subject formula, but many elements from these subjects are taught in the grades. In fact, the economic aspects of units have increased greatly in recent years. So it is possible that the teachers who do use the subject formula would do well to look more frequently to these two subjects for additional guidance.

Those who employ the subject formula, and the actual number is greater than the admitted number, feel that it has several advantages: First, it solves the problem of what materials to select. Second, it provides a discernible sequence, one which has the strength of tradition and experience. Third, the use of materials which have already been organized and treated in numerous books insures that ample and pertinent materials will be available for the construction of units. Fourth, the subject formula makes it easy for teachers and administrators to describe what the schools are doing and make the program intelligible to patrons. Fifth, it facilitates the adjustment of a new teacher and the proper placing of a new pupil.

Those who object to the subject formula argue that it has the disadvantages of the old traditional subjects, that it stresses content at the expense of pupil interest, that it lessens the freedom of the teacher, that it destroys the originality of the teacher, that it limits experiences and activities to the stilted kind that were used years ago.

Whatever virtues and values the subject formula may have, it is rapidly passing into disuse. As teachers grow in their understanding of children and in their sensitivity to social requirements they have less and less use for formal categories. In fact, the subject formula when applied to the earlier grades evidences a degree of educational backwardness. Fortunately, its use is sharply declining in these grades.

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THE FORMULA OF COMPARATIVE CULTURES

One of the most popular formulas for selecting social studies units has been that of comparative cultures. The dominant theme is "Ways of Living" or "Other Peoples in Other Lands." The principle seems to rest heavily upon the theory that young children are interested in what is remote, new, strange, different. So life among the Indians, Eskimos, Dutch, Japanese, Swiss, Norwegians, and desert and jungle peoples is studied in some detail. Similarities and contrasts between our lives and the lives of these groups are examined and described.

The selection of other cultures for study in the elementary school rests upon the assumption that they are simpler and less involved than our own ways of living, that an examination of the life of a desert nomad or an Arctic fisherman will reveal fundamental processes in simpler settings. As long as the assumption deals only with overt activities, such as migrating and making a living, it is probably sound and workable. Fundamental processes are more clearly portrayed in a relatively simple environment.

On the other hand neither the teacher nor the pupils should conclude that the ideas, customs, social organizations, and religious beliefs of other peoples, either primitive or advanced, are simple and easily understood. The notions and superstitions of an Eskimo or a desert nomad are quite likely to be wrapped in illogical magic. Such primitives have complex and involved theories about the weather, about disease, about their own everyday tasks. The Eskimo acquires skill in fishing but he also gathers a great many superstitions about how, when, and where he can catch fish. The study of other peoples should not lead to the false notion that the pupil understands the nomad, the Eskimo, or the Japanese.

Another danger in the study of alien cultures is the acquisition of the notion that their dominant quality or principal contribution can be stated in a phrase. Easy generalizations lead to a false sense of understanding. Eskimos live in igloos; the Dutch wear wooden shoes; the desert nomads are always on the move; Japanese women carry fans and sip tea. These are examples of

the easy, misleading, and inadequate notions which pupils are in danger of acquiring from their study of other cultures. These delusive generalizations are likely to lead to attitudes of condescension. The pupils are in danger of assuming that people who live in such different environments are really not quite human beings, or at least that they belong to an inferior species. Thus the argument that such studies promote good will and understanding among peoples may turn out to be false; in fact, the studies may actually widen the gulfs between peoples.

Another objection to the formula is that the materials it elicits are not based upon the direct experience of pupils. The pupil may see a few Indians, study pictures of other peoples, collect some relics or equipment, and enact a few simple processes of a particular group, but all these add up to less than a direct experience. Bartering is a more complex process for the child than spending a dime for some candy, because the latter is within the experience of the pupil. Building an igloo is more remote and unreal than the complexities of building a modern house, and for the same reason. The problems of herding sheep, finding water holes, and caring for animals in a dust storm are for the child as complex and much more remote than making an airplane or managing a department store. The pupils have a background of experience for understanding airplanes and stores which they lack in the case of the nomad's problems.

The assumption that people learn by going from the simple to the complex is questionable. People know automobiles before they recognize carburetors; they learn to read before they learn the letters; they appreciate the landscape before centering attention upon a particular tree. Likewise pupils learn, not by going from the simple to the complex, but by going from the whole to the part, from the general to the particular. Hence the idea that simple cultures are easy to understand is certainly an unwarranted assumption.

This analysis does not point to the conclusion that the study of other peoples should be eliminated from the curriculum, for on any basis of selection such materials will and should find a place in it. The conclusion is that the exclusive use of the formula of comparative cultures leads to a skewed curriculum, one

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which contains too much material of an alien nature — and so naturally too little of a familiar kind.

THE CONCEPT-PROCESS APPROACH

In trying to evolve a workable formula for selecting social studies materials, some curriculum makers have searched for basic ideas or key concepts. The ones most frequently mentioned are *interdependence, cooperation, adaptation, adjustment, change, values*, and *democracy*. These are regarded as ideational concepts and not as processes, functions, or activities.

Starting with these concepts, the curriculum maker selects the processes which they clearly indicate. He then selects the areas or scenes in which the processes operate, and lastly, the relevant materials for each area. Thus the formula involves four steps: (1) identifying basic *concepts*, such as cooperation, (2) finding a related *process*, such as transportation or commerce, (3) designating an *area*, such as community or nation, in which the process operates, and (4) selecting appropriate materials to bring the *concept*, the *process*, and the *area* together into a functional pattern of curricular content.

The concepts, being basic and primary, serve as indicators of what is important. They partake of the nature of objectives and serve as criteria for selecting subsequent steps in making the curriculum. No widely accepted list of concepts or ideas has been established; so it is clear that the resulting curriculums will vary in accordance with the concepts which are selected. If carried to its logical limit, the list would include all the desirable stages, ideals, and goals for which mankind has struggled. Such a list would be heartening and suggestive, for it would indicate the elements of a curriculum, but it would provide no program. Thus, listing the basic ideas or key concepts seems to be a process of analysis rather than a synthesis; it designates the pieces, but it does not put them together into a curriculum.

Assuming, however, that the basic concepts do constitute a first step in selecting materials, the curriculum maker next selects the processes through which they can operate. The processes are sometimes designated as basic, fundamental, or social, and sometimes they are called *functions* and in a few instances *themes*.

"Processes" seems to be the most apt term. The sum total of these processes is supposed to indicate all knowledge that is suitable for the social studies curriculum. The formula calls for the identifying of these processes and following them as guiding threads in selecting curricular materials. The most frequently mentioned ones are as follows:

1. Adjusting to environment	11. Developing personality
2. Migrating	12. Increasing the social heritage
3. Making a living	13. Improving the culture
4. Living together	14. Transmitting the social heritage
5. Participating in group living	15. Educating human beings
6. Conserving health and wealth	16. Establishing standards
7. Expressing esthetic impulses	17. Selecting values or ideals
8. Expressing religious impulses	
9. Engaging in recreation	
10. Controlling society	

This list, while not exhaustive, includes both those which are frequently used and some which are not very often mentioned in courses of study. Some of the processes overlap. For example, migrating (2) is certainly one way of adjusting to environment (1); and number 14 is the principal element in number 15. So the list illustrates the difficulty of dividing all human activity into a few neat, clear-cut categories.

The first difficulty in using the social process approach to curricular selection is to identify the processes. Each process should be separate and distinct, and as free as possible from overlapping, and the sum total of them should include parts of all areas of living. In other words, the problem is to make a new synthesis of knowledge for teaching purposes. The number must not be so great as to defeat the purpose and yet not so scanty as to leave out significant areas of life. The problem is so difficult that it has so far defied satisfactory solution. Further experimentation may produce more satisfactory lists, or it may lead to the abandonment of the whole idea.

The process approach is another scheme for organizing knowledge. While it may have a more functional appearance and may seem to be more appealing, it will eventually become another list

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of subjects. Some of the objections which can be made to subjects as the basis of selecting materials also hold in the case of processes. In addition, the materials for the teaching of processes are not so extensive or well organized as they are in the subjects. The function of "making a living" may be no nearer the child in Grade IV than "economics"; "increasing the social heritage" is certainly no more tangible than the inventions described in history textbooks.

AREAS OF LIVING

As indicated in the preceding section, the areas of living provide the locale in which the processes operate. The term "areas of living," sometimes, but quite inexactly, called "centers of interest," refers to the scene or extent of the materials chosen for a particular class. The usual order is home, school, neighborhood, community, state, nation, and world, although type environments and selected countries are sometimes designated as areas. Since these areas clearly indicate the order of inclusiveness and presumed difficulty, they offer no guidance in *what* to select; they merely provide a plan for grading what must be selected on some other basis.

Nothing further would need to be said about areas, were it not for the fact that some schools have used the term as a synonym of processes. The "areas of living" as listed in some programs are exact duplicates of the "processes" listed in others. The preceding section, devoted to processes, also applies to areas if one regards the two as synonymous. This confusion in terminology is, of course, unfortunate. Perhaps the term "processes," which is the real principle of selection, should be accepted as the standard word, and "areas" should be limited to its logical use as a plan of grading.

GENERALIZATIONS

The idea of selecting a few fundamental generalizations and developing them through pertinent clusters of materials is a very logical and helpful plan. Some research has been done on it and several hundred generalizations have emerged. If they avoid the petty and ephemeral on the one hand and the vague and general

on the other, they offer tangible and definite guidance in curriculum making.

On the other hand, generalizations are deceptively easy. They can be taught without the accompanying details and thus become as insignificant as any ordinary detail. The statement can be transferred from teacher to pupil, but the significance thereof must be learned by the pupil. This criticism does not imply any basic weakness in the idea, but it does point out an inevitable danger which accompanies any attempt to transfer wisdom in homeopathic doses.

In practice the generalization has become a synonym of concept and process. Thus some courses of study call *interdependence*, *adaptation*, *cooperation*, and *democracy* generalizations; other courses call them concepts; others call them processes; and still others call them themes. There seems to be considerable difference between a basic concept and a fully stated generalization, for the latter does indicate a specific aspect or conclusion; whereas the concept is simply an inert identification of a connotation. Yet in practice no such distinction is observed. Consequently, the original merit and energy of the idea of generalizations as a curricular guide has been dissipated; as a formula for selecting materials it has become as innocuous as a word list.

PROBLEMS AND ISSUES

The use of current problems and issues as a basis for making social studies units is popular and widespread. The first step in this formula is to select and grade the problems; this process involves an analysis of society, such as was described in Chapter 7, and the selection of the pertinent issues to be studied.

Teachers and curriculum makers need to be aware of several questions connected with the use of the problem formula. Are the problems to be those confronting society or those which touch the pupils? Do some of the solutions to past problems, such as railroads, highways, automobiles, airplanes, the organization of government, and our distribution system, constitute problems for pupils? In other words, are society's achievements problems for the pupils until they understand them?

Some historians and sociologists hold that fundamental prob-

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lems are never solved, that each generation must face anew such problems as making a living, creating governments, schools, and other social institutions, rearing children, providing recreation, and enriching culture. Naturally the problems vary from generation to generation. So whether one calls them new problems or changed aspects of old problems does not seem to be very important. The fact is that each generation confronts problems and each generation can profit by all previous experience; so both the forms and the solutions of the problems are bound to differ with each generation.

Does the study of today's problem give any assurance of the ability to solve tomorrow's problem? There are two answers to this question. In the first place, tomorrow's problem will not be utterly, perhaps not even fundamentally, different from that of today. In fact, the chances are very great that the same problem which confronts an individual as a pupil will also trouble him as an adult. If it is not the same, it will be a variation of it, or at least very similar in nature. In the second place, training in a method or process has been proved to have a very high transfer value. But even if the transfer is slight there can probably be no better preparation for tomorrow than the faithful performance of today's duty.

Does the problem formula result in a fairly complete curriculum? It seems clear that any comprehensive list of current problems will involve about all that is known in economics, civics, sociology, and geography. It is probable that a problem curriculum would lead to the omission of some history which is now in the program. On the other hand, any adequate survey of a problem involves a review of its origin, its growth, previous attempts and solutions, and its changing nature. Thus the study of problems might logically result in the more frequent, incisive, and meaningful use of history. Those eras or topics which now seem to have little utility may at any time become important again. Thus it appears that the use of the problem approach would result in a fairly complete curriculum.

Does the problem formula provide materials suitable for children? That which is important and determinative for fathers and mothers has or will have significant consequences for the children.

What is important for the citizen is also important for the pupil. The question is, not whether the problem affects the pupil, for they all do, but whether it is within the range of his interests and capacities.

The child of a businessman becomes aware of some of the problems of business; the child of a laborer senses at an early age some of the issues of hours, wages, and working conditions. Thus interest in current problems is actual or potential in most pupils. Few problems are so complex as to defy all approaches until a person attains a specific age. Researches into child development show that the capacity for reasoning, thinking, seeing connections, and other forms of advanced mental effort is present in very young children and develops as they grow older and utilize more complex materials. It is, therefore, rather presumptuous to say that taxation, world peace, freight rates, honest elections, law enforcement, uniform divorce laws, conservation, and other current problems are beyond the grasp of children. Certainly many aspects of them are; and also some elements of such problems are beyond many adults, and some problems are obviously beyond the grasp of even leaders and statesmen. Some aspects of most current problems, most aspects of some problems, and at least a few aspects of all problems are or can be made suitable for instruction in the elementary school.

The use of problems insures the social value and timeliness of the materials; it motivates learning and facilitates teaching, for the problem almost automatically indicates a method. The use of problems gives assurance of a rich and inclusive curriculum. Whether it should be the sole, or even the major, formula is an open question, but there can be no doubt that it is a workable and helpful formula for selecting units.

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12. ADJUSTING THE PROGRAM TO THE PUPILS

THE PROBLEM OF GRADING

Grading is the arrangement of materials in a sequence of orderly development. The word itself has several uses in education. It is used to indicate the sequence of classes and the proper allocation of pupils to them. It is sometimes applied to the order of administrative units, such as primary, intermediate, and junior high schools. It is also used in referring to the process of assigning marks. Thus classes are graded, schools are graded, pupils are graded, and the materials are graded. In this chapter the word refers solely to the placing of social studies *materials* for the most efficient learning.

A properly graded curriculum is one in which each grade has suitable materials for the pupils of that level. In such a curriculum the pupil feels no gaps or breaks as he passes from grade to grade. The materials are so arranged as to provide continuity. The work of Grade III fits onto what was done in Grade II and leads naturally and smoothly on to Grade IV. Such a program is *vertically integrated*.

If the work in social studies, science, mathematics, art, language, and activities of all kinds is properly interrelated the program also possesses *horizontal integration*. In such a program the pupil sees relationships from field to field, and in each one he advances by well-arranged steps. Such a program is both vertically and horizontally integrated.

If each pupil could receive individual instruction, the problem of grading would be greatly simplified. He and his teacher could select appealing and achievable materials. If the ones chosen proved to be familiar, more challenging ones could be quickly substituted. If they proved to be too difficult, they could easily be

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postponed. Even with one pupil, however, the teacher would have to see that his program was continuous and that it contained no serious gaps.

When the teacher has, not one, but thirty-five pupils, however, the difficulties of grading are multiplied. Pupils vary in ability, experience, interests, and rates of growth. If by some miraculous chance the teacher did find a unit which was perfectly graded for all the pupils in September, the chances are great that by October some of them would have forged ahead and some would have lagged behind the main group. Thus it is apparent that grading can at best only result in an approximate and temporary solution of the problem of providing materials suited to the varying needs and capacities of the pupils.

While meeting the needs of the majority of the class is an achievement, it is not enough. Professional standards require that every pupil be given materials which he can master. This is a severely exacting standard. Repeated studies have shown that the range of reading ability within a particular class extends over six or seven grades. This means that in Grade IV, for example, some pupils equal typical students of Grade VII in reading ability, while others can do no better than typical pupils in Grade I. Some suggestions on how to meet this problem of varying abilities are offered in a later section.

Grading in the social studies is even more difficult than in some other fields. The social studies offer no clearly marked order of difficulty or progress. Many of the names, dates, events, topics, and items occur again and again as one ascends the grade scale. Presumably each new treatment is an advance over the preceding one, but such progression is by no means assured. Is the discovery of America a simpler idea than the sinking of the *Maine*? Is the story of Jamestown easier than that of the Gold Rush? Is the fire department more amenable to understanding than the direct election of United States senators? These are concrete questions of grading.

In the social studies the problem of grading is further complicated by the fact that the teacher does not have sole charge of the pupil in his progress through the field. Parents and neighbors will seldom teach a child arithmetic or punctuation or art, but all

of them are constantly teaching him the principles of social behavior. Thus outside the school he is regularly receiving lessons in conduct and in attitudes, not all of which are desirable and also in facts concerning government, economics, history, and geography, not all of which are accurate. While the teacher welcomes some of this help, it does rob her of the chance to introduce materials for which all the pupils have a similar background. In other words, this outside help aggravates the problem of grading, however beneficial its total effect may be.

The problem of grading may be stated as the attempt to arrange materials in the order of their difficulty. Doing this involves a consideration of the pupils — their ability, maturity, needs, and interests. Pupils of superior ability read advanced materials, understand complicated relationships, and derive insights from explanations. Consequently the plan of grading should allow them to advance to more difficult undertakings. The age of pupils in particular grades provides some guidance in grading the curriculum. The typical ten-year-old pupil is prepared for undertakings which were closed to him at eight. The needs of pupils have provided some guidance; for it is generally assumed that their needs are indicated by the areas of their experience, that as they go up the chronological and grade scale they also expand the number and increase the complexity of their contacts. Pupil interests are likewise rather definitely conditioned by the range of experience.

THE CYCLE ARRANGEMENT OF MATERIALS

One of the oldest practices of grading is to try to arrange the materials in order of ascending difficulty. Consider, for example, the topic or problem of *taxation*. On the first level the teacher would deal with simple and direct kinds of taxes, such as property tax or a sales levy. On succeeding levels the pupils would consider more and more complex forms of taxation, concluding with such taxes as those on excess profits. This spiral arrangement theoretically involves no direct repetition, but a carefully graduated ascent to more and more inclusive and complicated aspects.

This idea is also applied to subjects. The first survey of Ameri-

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can history, usually in the middle grades, involves a study of persons, places, and events. The second survey of the subject, usually in Grades VII and VIII, theoretically includes an expansion of the data used in the first survey, plus descriptive materials. The third survey, in Grade XI, and the fourth one, in college, include more detail and explanatory materials. This cycle arrangement involves repetition but always on a more advanced level.

The cycle plan has been widely used in geography, also. The first survey of the various countries involves only the simplest, most striking facts and features. Successive surveys increase in difficulty, complexity, and inclusiveness.

The cycle, spiral, or concentric plan, as it is variously called, has not been very successful. Teachers of the second cycle assert that the pupils learned little during the first cycle, and teachers of the third cycle declare that the second one was likewise unsatisfactory. The pupils, whose curiosity has been dulled by one exposure, assume as they start the second one that they already know the materials. They hear the same names and topics and so conclude that further effort is unnecessary. In practice, the plan has involved much repetition and duplication. In some instances the second cycle is no advance over the first. Whether or not cycles should be completely abandoned is an open question. They have declined in popularity and they seem to be on the way out. Some better plan can surely be found.

SPECIFIC-GENERAL PRINCIPLE OF GRADING

There is a progression in difficulty from the specific to the general, the concrete to the abstract, the simple to the complex. Particular, localized facts are easier than general, remote ones. Gestalt psychology, however, has shown that the whole may be simpler than the parts. Certainly, words and even whole sentences have been proved to be easier for the child than the letters. Within a unit or subject, however, any part is ordinarily easier to master than the whole. One may appreciate an automobile as a unity and not understand the carburetor, but no one would argue that the carburetor is more difficult to understand than the whole automobile. So the principle of going from the

specific to the general presupposes the same degree of mastery of both the part and the whole. When it is so stated everyone will agree that the part is easier and simpler than the whole.

Concrete concepts, such as *tree*, *jump*, *house*, and *soft* are readily apprehended, whereas such abstractions as *friendship*, *loyalty*, *duty*, *justice*, and *standard* are more difficult. Some studies show that no abstract words should be taught in the primary grades, and one study shows that there is little use to try to teach such abstractions as *sovereignty* and *autonomy*, even in Grade XII.

While the realization that there is a sequence from specific to general and from concrete to abstract is suggestive and helpful in particular instances, it scarcely provides a basis for grading materials on any large scale. Other plans are necessary.

TRIAL AND ERROR

While random experience or trial and error is not a technique — in fact, it is a confession of the lack of one — it is an operative procedure. The teacher who teaches a unit on the post office in Grade I and believes that it was successful has a right to conclude that it is properly placed. For years American history has been taught in Grade V. Many teachers think that pupils derive great benefit therefrom; so they conclude that the subject is properly graded. The sum total of this random experimentation is large, and while the evidence is not very objective, it is usually accepted as having at least some validity.

If the trial and error procedure could be transformed into experimentation, it might yet furnish the most valuable guidance for grading. Tests, records, and standards of an objective nature would be required, and data from all kinds of schools in various parts of the country would have to be gathered. Such records would show whether the achievements were satisfactory. They would prove that present offerings were or were not being learned. While such a result would not show that the program was the best program, it would show more than is now known about the correct placement of subjects and units.

TEST RESULTS AND WORD LISTS

Testing pupils is a familiar practice; testing materials is less familiar, but it is one way of determining their difficulty for the pupils. For example, the proper grading of a unit could be determined by making a test involving the expected outcomes and giving it to all the grades into which it might possibly fit. Suppose that the mean score of Grade IV was 120, of Grade V, 140, and of Grade VI, 160. If the test contained 170 items, it would seem that the materials of the unit are already known by the sixth grade pupils; in fact, the results might indicate that the unit belongs in Grade III, for it contains too much which is already familiar even to the fourth grade pupils.

Other standards for making decisions and variations of this procedure could easily be devised. For grading informational materials the plan is sound, but its application would involve extensive and repeated testing.

Grading on the basis of words or concepts has been suggested and applied to a limited extent. One procedure involves a duplication of the one just described, except that the problem is to grade a *word* instead of a *unit*. Another technique is to accept extant word lists, such as Rinsland's and Thorndike's, and assign a number of words to each grade level. The teacher would then gather materials and teach the words in appropriate context. The pupils would thus have a fairly definite and graduated body of content arranged in order of its assumed difficulty.

Some difficulties in using word lists for grading purposes would have to be met. Will all the denotations and some of the connotations for each word be taught? If so, how will they be selected and when will other connotations be introduced? Will not a mere word list result in rote learning of examples and definitions rather than in adequate comprehension of the concepts? If, however, the specialized vocabularies of the social studies were utilized and if materials of sufficient fullness involving these words were prepared, the plan might be practicable. So far, however, the word technique has furnished only incidental suggestions and not a workable plan.

WIDENING SOCIAL HORIZONS

The plan of grading geographic materials on the principle of widening circles that reflect the pupil's widening experience seems to have been fruitful. Why not apply this principle to social contacts and arrange social studies materials in the order of probable social experience? To a considerable extent that is exactly what is being done. The primary grades deal largely with persons and institutions with which the pupils have had direct contacts. In the middle grades some materials that involve indirect or vicarious, as well as direct experience, are introduced. In the upper grades more extensive and complicated social experiences are utilized, many of them requiring rather wide reading.

Perhaps progress in applying this principle of widening social horizons could be made by a deliberate and conscious recognition of the order of difficulty in social relationships. A scale that indicates this growing complexity might provide a basis for further study and experimentation. The following table may provide a tentative principle of procedure.

A PLAN FOR GRADING

- 9 Groups-society (government-business)
- 8 Group-group (team-spectators, Mexico-Peru)
- 7 Codes, standards, ideals (truth, courtesy)
- 6 Individual-group (pupil-class, captain-gang)
- 5 Time and space (after, long ago, far)
- 4 Environment (hills, rain, cold)
- 3 Person-person relationships (parent-son, teacher-pupil)
- 2 Occurrences, events (accidents, trips, deeds)
- 1 Concrete entities (things, individuals, words, actions, qualities)

MISCELLANEOUS PLANS FOR GRADING

The idea that materials can be graded according to the nature of the content has been suggested and tried to a limited extent. Narrative materials are said to be the simplest kind and should therefore come first, followed by descriptions, explanations, and finally critical analysis. This order has some application to his-

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tory, but it does not fit geography or civics in which the narrative elements are few. Some attempts have been made to introduce the narrative into geography and civics in the form of a personally conducted tour, but the use of such devices seems altogether too limited to be of great value.

In geography the arrangement of materials on the basis of distance seems to have been fruitful. Thus the geography of the schoolyard and community comes first and leads step by step to a study of the whole earth. Opposed to this is the idea that pupils are interested in the remote and strange, and for this reason Eskimos, desert nomads, and the peaks of Switzerland receive early attention. In theory these topics could be regarded as motivating devices which afford a sample of the interesting materials which are available as the pupil ascends the grade scale. In practice, however, they are often the whole study, and so the schoolyard and community are neglected. However, the principle of proceeding from the known and familiar to the unknown and strange is sound and workable.

In history, the arrangement of materials according to chronology has long been a standardized practice. Pupils in the early grades study the early part of American history and in the later grades they study later American history. Chronology is clearly one of the best possible plans for organizing materials, but it does not seem to be equally good as a principle of grading. As a means of grading it involves the study of the most distant past first. So the pupil is asked to jump into the strange, far away, and unknown and work his way slowly back to the familiar, the near, and the known, and many textbooks and teachers see to it that he never arrives.

A limited use of the opposite principle of studying history backwards seems desirable. In practice, however, this plan is usually nothing more than a motivating device or a statement of the problem or topic. One could study the history of housing, for example, by starting with a survey of present conditions and move back step by step to any desired period. When the survey is concerned with the whole life of a people, however, this reversed chronological plan is probably unworkable; at least, it has never been tried. Studying the sixteenth century before the

fifteenth does not seem to be very logical or practicable. Because of its simplicity and definiteness, chronology is an appealing principle, one which provides ideas for grading as well as for organizing materials.

One other minor principle of grading deserves mention because of its historical interest rather than its present utility, namely, the culture-epoch or recapitulation theory. The idea was to arrange the materials in the order of their social invention. Thus primary children would study the culture of savages; the middle grade pupils would study the culture of barbarians; and upper grade pupils might study at least the early stages of civilization. The theory was predicated upon the assumption that each child developed through stages somewhat parallel to those through which the human race has evolved.

The absurdity of this plan would become evident if one really carried it out. Savages had no reading, arithmetic, and writing. If the advocate of the plan is to be consistent he should expect no reading, arithmetic, and writing from pupils who are still in this early stage of development. The process of evolution moves toward simplicity as well as toward complexity. Our numbering system is simpler than that of the Romans; our letters are easier than those of the Chinese. The culture-epoch theory also contradicts what we know about child development. The child does not go through any clearly marked stages; instead, he progresses slowly, step by step from infancy to maturity. The culture-epoch theory is now a curiosity.

PROVIDING FOR INDIVIDUAL DIFFERENCES

The existence of individual differences is often regarded as a curse sent upon teachers, as an aggravation of an already onerous situation. If the teacher should some day enter a schoolroom in which all the pupils were similar in interests, capacities, skills, attitudes, and achievement, she would soon realize that her program would have to be very restricted, that the performances would sound like echoes of one another, that there was no longer interesting variety, and that unexpected enrichments would no longer be contributed. It is a safe assertion that she would not like her homogeneous class.

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The existence of individual differences not only affords variation, unexpected developments, and entertainment, but it is also a source of limitless inspiration, an incentive to professional growth, and a challenge to ingenuity. The teacher should regard it as an asset and not a liability, a resource and not a difficulty, for the attitude of the teacher toward this question determines how the boys and girls are going to fare.

The typical class is an epitome of society. It contains the bright and the dull, the alert and the listless, the aggressive and the submissive, the acquisitive and the meek—in fact, the extremes in all kinds of qualities. The class is not only a replica of society; it is society. In a democracy we nourish, encourage, and uphold individual differences. The individual's achievement is society's gain. The teacher should therefore regard her class as a living organism, a functioning unit. She needs the ideas of all the pupils. Practicing democracy in the classroom, where every pupil has his chance, is the best possible training for democracy beyond the classroom.

Individuals differ in qualities and in intensity of qualities. Variations in intelligence and reading ability are well known. Differences in temperament, home background, personal characteristics, cultural opportunities, social maturity, work experiences, health, bodily structure, emotions, interest, energy, will power, and habits of work should also be recognized.

In connection with the topic of individual differences, the teacher should also be mindful of individual variability. The former refers to two or more persons, the latter to one pupil at a time. The range of individual variability is even greater than the differences among individuals. The pupil who cannot read well may be outstanding in drawing. A boy's interests may not lead him to read history, but they may result in the construction of remarkably lifelike models. The girl who does not like to write may make collections of pictures and art products. Individual variability often involves remarkably rapid changes in interests and in personality traits. Periods of seeming stagnation will be followed by sudden spurts of development. Physical and mental efforts and outlets of self-expression may vary rapidly in an unpredictable order. So the teacher who understood a pupil

a year ago, or even a month ago, may have to make a new study of his changed characteristics and interests and revise her methods of teaching him. Whether one believes that intelligence is unitary or fragmentary, the observable fact is that even mediocre pupils often achieve successfully when their interests are aroused and their capacities discovered. Hence the resourceful teacher will not despair in her efforts to adjust instruction to bright, dull, and average pupils.

The following are some ways in which provisions can be made for individual differences. At least part of them may also prove helpful in trying to provide for individual variability.

PROVIDING FOR INDIVIDUAL DIFFERENCES

A. Through Educational Philosophy

1. Regard differences as assets as well as problems
2. Encourage outstanding achievement
3. Recognition of individual worth

B. Through Administrative Provisions

4. Homogeneous grouping for specialized purposes
5. Heterogeneous grouping for socializing purposes
6. Counseling service
7. Visiting teachers
8. Flexible promotions
9. Supplies, equipment, and materials
10. Longer classroom periods
11. Vocational guidance
12. Personal counsel
13. Using the community

C. Through Classroom Procedures

14. Differentiated assignments
15. Committees and groups within classes
16. Recognition of varied kinds of achievement
17. Credit for volunteer work
18. Varying time allotments
19. Simplification of reading material
20. Guidance sheets and workbooks
21. Monitorial plan
22. Assigning responsibilities

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D. *Through Varied Use of Materials*

23. Variety of reading materials
24. Films and recordings
25. Pictures, charts, graphs

E. *Through Varied Kinds of Evaluation*

26. Flexible standards
27. Nonverbal tests
28. Marks on basis of individual growth

With such a variety of possible means, the teacher can seldom be at a loss as to some steps which she might take to care for a bright pupil who forges ahead and for a dull pupil who lags behind. The extremes of a class are relatively easy to identify and these suggested ways are designed particularly for the extremes.

While it may sound somewhat incongruous in a discussion of individual differences to mention the typical, average students, they too deserve attention. While they may be at neither end of the class and while they may appear to be satisfactorily adjusted, they too differ among themselves. Their needs and interests deserve the same personal attention which is generally conceded as the right of the bright and the dull. In our earnest efforts to care for the exceptional pupils, we may be in danger of neglecting the large middle group, or even the class as a whole.

Being a student of society, the social studies teacher will naturally be mindful of the class as a group, as a social unit, as well as of the class as an aggregate of individuals. Society requires conformity as well as variation. The value of group performances such as playing, singing, working, cooperating, and competing should not be overlooked. The welfare of the whole class is also the welfare of the individuals.

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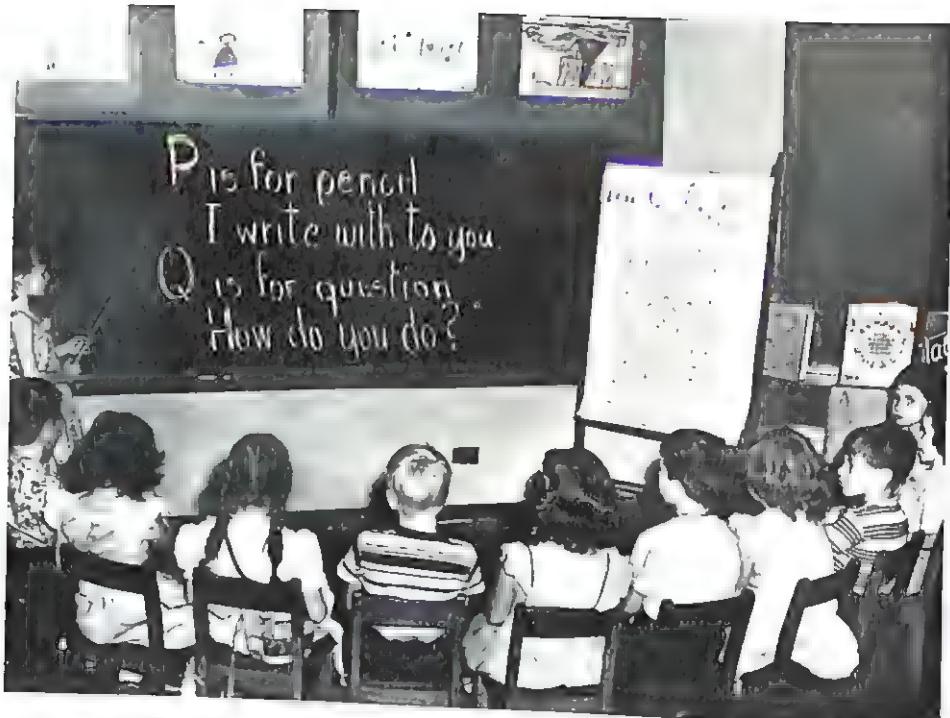
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ACCURATE MODELS ENABLE PUPILS TO FORM ACCURATE CONCEPTS.



WHEN SKILFULLY DIRECTED, PUPILS CONTRIBUTE TO THE
DEVELOPMENT OF METHODS AND DEVICES.



TEACHER-PUPIL PLANNING THROUGH DISCUSSION LEADS TO
WORTHWHILE ACTIVITIES.

13. ORGANIZING MATERIALS FOR LEARNING

THE PROBLEM OF ORGANIZATION

The steps in curriculum making are (1) analyzing society, (2) selecting objectives, (3) selecting the materials, (4) organizing the materials, and (5) grading them for classes and individuals. This chapter deals with the fourth step.

Materials as they are written by historians, geographers, and political scientists are seldom organized to fit school procedures. The curriculum maker must put them into suitable form. What is the most suitable form? To this question there are several answers. The oldest and most used type of organization is the *subject*. Within recent years, however, another type of organization, the *unit*, has surpassed the subject in popularity in the elementary schools. In addition to the subject and the unit there are several other types of organization. Each should be considered and utilized in proportion to its merits.

A well-organized curriculum is one which meets several conditions. It must be logical and appealing, inclusive and yet specific, formal and yet flexible; it must provide for individual differences, for both direct and vicarious experiences, for reviews without unnecessary overlapping, and for the use of the community as well as the library. The finding of this desirable form of organization is the problem of this chapter.

REQUIREMENTS OF A GOOD ORGANIZATION

A good organization of materials must meet a number of conditions. The first of these is *repetition*. It is scarcely sufficient to deal with an important topic, concept, or item in only one place. As the pupil ascends the grade scale, he can see further

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into an item or topic. The idea of democracy, cooperation, manufacturing, or transportation may occur in Grade I. But this single appearance is scarcely a guarantee that it will be understood or learned. Hence the organization itself must provide for repetition, or recurrence of the idea or topic, preferably from a somewhat different viewpoint and with an enlarged treatment. The principle does not call for outright duplication or even for very much overlapping. Repetition is thus a device for insuring fuller and more adequate understanding of whatever is presented. All programs should provide for progressive growth in all the materials.

A second requirement of a good organization is flexibility. The idea of flexibility implies a structure or pattern which allows for variations, adjustments to new situations, and changes by both deletion and addition. Modern bookshelves have fixed sides but movable shelves; they have structure and flexibility. A flexible curriculum allows for changes, for unexpected developments, for local events; it provides for a choice among units. And above all, it allows the teacher a choice of contents, activities, and methods.

Closely related to flexibility is the requirement that an organization of materials provide for pupils of varying ability. This can be done by indicating minimum essentials and enrichment materials, or by providing several levels of difficulty from which the student can choose the appropriate level. Thus the more capable pupils can read widely, write many papers, and carry on numerous activities, while the less capable ones can perform in proportion to their capacities. Naturally, formal provisions in the program will not assure their application in the classroom, for only the teacher can transform them into functioning realities. Formal provisions, however, have the merit of reminding teachers of the desirability of modifying the recommended program to pupils of varying capacities and interests.

A fourth requirement which a curricular organization must meet is that of providing a proper balance of direct and indirect experience, a blend of activities and study. The class which engages day after day in direct experiences will learn, but it will learn less than a class which also utilizes other people's experi-

ences. The program should explicitly recognize the need for both study and direct experience.

In the fifth place, a program must provide for the utilization of the resources of the community. Field trips to the store, bank, factory, museum, courthouse, park, and other places of interest should be so conducted as to yield returns of direct value; such resources are parts of the curriculum. The curriculum which fails to integrate the community and the written materials has overlooked an opportunity. Fortunately this requirement is usually met in courses of study. It is a recognized and accepted resource of teaching.

Lastly, the program should be so organized as to meet the demands of logic and the requirements of a psychological appeal. There is no antithesis between logical and psychological; what is appealing, interesting, and true will certainly not violate the canons of a logical structure. A study of the post office can be made by starting with a chart showing its organization, its functions, and its personnel; such a plan is logical. A study of the post office can be made by starting with the individual postman. After studying his duties and activities one can next turn to the post office itself and learn how it is organized. Both approaches are *logical*; the second one may have a better psychological appeal. The teacher should not be confused by the false claim that there is a conflict between psychology and logic. There is not now, never was, and never will be any war between them.

ORGANIZATION BY SUBJECTS

All lists of the steps in learning include one which indicates a synthesis, a pulling together of the separate elements into a structure or organization. A subject, such as geography or civics, is the result of such a synthesis. The subjects are old, well-established structures; they have been built up through long periods of time and revised and enlarged as errors have been detected and new materials discovered. They are useful categories which contain materials of a homogeneous nature.

The existence of subjects in the social sciences has led to similar divisions in the social studies. As long as the social sciences were limited in content, no sharp demarcation between them and the

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social studies was necessary. As the social sciences developed into complex and extensive collections of knowledge, however, some differentiation between them and the social studies became imperative. This task of creating and organizing the social studies has fallen to the teacher.

Everyone recognizes that the social sciences can seldom be utilized in the schools until they are rewritten and reorganized in simpler forms. The question of using subjects in the schools should not therefore be obscured by the pretense that it involves the use of the advanced social sciences. The advocate of subject organization recognizes as clearly as the advocate of units or fusion that the social sciences must be transformed into the social studies.

In the elementary schools American history, Old World backgrounds, and geography have attained a more or less standardized content. Civics, economic topics, and such sociological elements as appear have attained no very stable content. The development and standardization of a subject requires time and experimentation. The allocation of materials to them is a process and not the act of a curriculum committee. Subjects, even in the simpler form which they assume in the social studies, therefore represent the results of long experience. As repositories of social knowledge they cannot be treated scornfully, whatever objection one may have to them from a pedagogical standpoint.

ADVANTAGES OF SUBJECT ORGANIZATION

The social studies subjects are unified and simplified bodies of related materials. They have developed because they are psychologically necessary; they are the outward forms of an inner necessity. They are as useful for the learner as for the author.

Subjects offer the readiest means of locating and identifying materials. Extensions and additions to knowledge are made by scholars within subjects; they report their findings in the literature of the subject. Teachers can therefore most easily extend their scholarship by following the developments within particular subjects.

Subjects, being coordinated bodies of materials, constitute an approach, a method of research, a way of thinking. They are a

discipline which no collection of promiscuous facts can equal. This discipline in thinking and working is eventually as important for the pupil as for the teacher.

Subjects are susceptible to every improvement which can be made in other types of organization. Within their limits there is room for projects, problems, activities, units, topics, and integration. There are no walls around subjects; the phrase "watertight compartments" as applied to social studies subjects was coined in confusion and perpetuated in ignorance. No passports or visas are required in crossing and recrossing the shadowy boundaries between subjects. There is no hostility among them. No subject objects to being leagued with another; fusion, integration, unification, or concentration will find no barriers to the free assembling of contents from all the subjects. Within the flexible and elastic boundaries of subjects the teacher and pupils can find all materials, and these materials can be used in any desired manner. Subjects are not the enemies of children, for they are designed to facilitate, rather than impede, learning.

CRITICISMS OF SUBJECT ORGANIZATION

Subject organization inevitably stresses content, structure, and scholarship. Its mere presence in the schoolroom tends to build up in the mind of the teacher an allegiance to its standards and requirements rather than a primary consideration for the pupils. Subjects logically and inevitably include many materials which are not only irrelevant to the teaching of children, but actually impulsive.

Since each subject tends to set its own limits and to demand that its requirements be met, their mere presence leads to an over-crowded curriculum. If only the relevant portions could be selected, the subjects would make a contribution, but they are like the camel—they want to come all the way into the curricular tent. The result is that more materials are available than can be organized and taught effectively.

The separateness of subjects makes mental integration more difficult. The scattered and apparently diverse elements are left isolated, unrelated, and uncoordinated. The integrity of the subject is maintained at the expense of learning. An organization

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should facilitate the process of establishing relationships rather than of raising barriers.

Subjects tend to stress deferred values rather than the present needs of the pupils. They point to adult needs rather than pupil interests.

Subjects tend to stress the past, the origins of issues rather than their current manifestations. In brief, they make such demands as seriously to interfere with pupil interests and activities; they are an adult standard thrust upon childhood. They become ends in themselves, whereas a curricular organization should exist for the benefit of the pupils.

THE TRANSITION TO UNITS

The two major forms of organizing social studies materials in the elementary school are *subject* and *unit*. They deserve most attention because they are most frequent in practice. But some other intermediate types of organization deserve brief attention because they provided the steps in the transition from subjects to units.

Correlation is the formal attempt to establish connections and relationships among the social studies. Materials dealing with the same or similar topics in geography, civics, and history are identified and the relationships established. Correlation is a step toward a synthesis, but only a step, for it leaves existing organizations intact. Correlation scarcely constitutes a form of organization; it merely establishes connections and relationships.

A second step toward unification in the social studies is known as *concentration*. In this type of organization one subject, most frequently history, serves as the core around which the other contents are grouped. Other subjects are taught as subsidiary and contributory to history. It provides the framework and the continuity. No very complete organization according to this plan has ever been made, but the idea is suggestive and helpful.

A third step toward a more meaningful organization was taken when *fusion* was devised. Originally fusion meant the merging of two subjects, such as geography and history or history and civics. An outline which involved the materials from both subjects was used to form a new entity from the two subjects. The

word has come to mean various stages of merging the social studies subjects. In fact, for some persons it is synonymous with integration or unification. It seems better, however, to restrict the word to its original significance, which was a merger of some of the elements of the curriculum. While fusion is only a step, it does provide a limited and partial kind of synthesis, which may facilitate learning to some extent. By bringing together two separate treatments written from different viewpoints, the pupil began to see at least some degree of unity, whereas previously he might not have seen any relationship.

A fourth step toward the synthesizing of materials into units is called *integration*. It involves the ignoring of subjects and the recognition of the field of the social studies. The existence of subjects may be recognized, but the interests of the pupils are predominant over the logical demands of the subjects. Integration was originally used to designate a mental process, an inner synthesis, and this is still the most accurate connotation. Recently, however, the word is also applied to that type of organization which is supposed to promote this mental synthesis.

The fifth and present stage is *unification*. This stage is characterized by the use of *units*, which may be wholly within a subject but which more frequently draw from the whole *field* of the social studies rather than from a single subject. Unification reflects the complete acceptance of the idea of organizing materials wholly and solely for the sake of promoting learning. Units are not intended as contributions to general social progress; they are contributions to education. Of course, they eventually affect social progress because they promote the better training of the members of society.

The idea of integrating subjects and elements does not stop at the boundaries of the social studies field. If a fusion or unification of the subjects of a field is a helpful process, why not carry it to its logical conclusion and merge all fields? It is difficult to visualize the result except in terms of an encyclopedia, a universal synthesis of knowledge, or a compendium of wisdom. So far the experimentation has involved only two or three fields. Attempts to combine English and social studies have been made for years. It is possible that these efforts will evolve some workable plans

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for combining at least some of the fields. From another viewpoint this movement may be characterized as the extension of the undifferentiated mass of material of the early grades into the upper grades. Presumably, however, at the upper levels the pupils *combine* elements rather than merely accept unanalyzed and therefore unintegrated materials. While alterations in organization may help some pupils in studying some materials, it is idle to think that a formula which guarantees understanding will ever be found.

This analysis shows that the unit has become the typical form of organization in the social studies: it also explains, in fact, why this change has taken place. Since the unit is not only a form of organization but also a method it seems best to devote a separate chapter to the unit and the ways of teaching it.

OTHER FORMS OF ORGANIZATION

In spite of the logic of subject organization and the pedagogical efficacy of unit organization, it should be recognized that other forms are available, that variation is sometimes desirable.

1. The *topic* constitutes a useful form, both for selecting and for organizing materials. It is only a thread or strand of a subject and less extensive than a unit. It may be utilized for reviews and summaries. In geography, for example, a class might consider "climate" or "fishing" as a topic and review all that has been learned about it in studying various countries and regions. In history, such topics as "elections," "explorations," and "growth of states" might constitute convenient threads. The purpose of organization is to provide a mental structure for learning and retention. The topic meets such a requirement.

2. While the *problem* is usually regarded as an element of the curriculum or as a method, it also provides a definite form of organization. The importance, origin, causes, status, and proposed solutions constitute a logical and an appealing form for synthesizing the materials. Problems of infinite range are available. Pupils can select some relatively simple question such as "How Is Paper Made?" or the bewilderingly complex one of "How to Avoid War." The study of a problem involves all kinds of materials and procedures. Thus the problem organization can be

used in learning skills or information and also in learning through purposeful and planned experiences.

3. *Chronology and sequence* provide a kind of organization. They involve the arrangement of events and developments in the order of their occurrence. In history, the organization of events would follow chronology; in economics or civics they would be organized in sequence. For example, the study of "electric power" would follow the sequence of developments from selecting the site of a dam, the construction of the plant, and on through the generating, transmission, and utilizing of the electric power. In other words chronology and sequence provide a logical and easily understood method of organizing materials.

4. A particularly appealing core for organizing materials for elementary pupils is found in *biography*. Almost any aspect of human activity can be organized around a person who has made a major contribution to a particular field. Automobiles and Ford, electricity and Edison, conservation and Theodore Roosevelt, adventure and Daniel Boone, polar regions and Stefansson are only five examples of scores of possibilities of organizing materials around the life of a person. While a personal biography is unsuited to this purpose, those that deal with the life, achievement, and times of the subject are particularly useful. In fact, a succession of biographies could be used as a basis for organizing geography, civic achievements, American history, and other large areas of the social studies.

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14. DEVELOPING AND EXPERIENCING UNITS

THE THEORY OF UNITS

A unit is an organized body of contents and activities designed to facilitate pupil learning. It is well to stress the inclusive aspect of the unit. It provides for excursions, projects, activities, and other forms of direct experience; it also contains a body of significant content which is focused upon the purpose and not included merely because it is interesting or because the teacher thinks the pupil "needs to know it."

The purpose of a unit is to effect a change in a pupil's behavior, in his attitudes, understanding, information, interests, in his whole pattern of conduct. It is common to stress understanding and the modifying effect it has upon behavior. The outcomes of units are therefore conceived, not primarily in terms of information, but in terms of skills, understandings, insights, generalizations, processes, principles, and other end results which have great transfer value. The pupil who masters a significant unit will have new interests, will behave differently, will see new relationships, and will make new interpretations.

In the social studies the unit is focused upon some significant process or social relationship. Relatively static materials, such as the structure of Congress, the products of Mexico, the geographical features of Norway, or the election of a President, do not imply significant purposes nor indicate enriching experiences. While it is possible to transform these static topics into units, it is perhaps more worth while to focus attention upon those which automatically indicate purpose and significance. Such processes as the Westward Movement, winning a political office, importing coffee, transforming a desert into a garden, maintain-

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ing a school, and securing playgrounds provide ideas of growth, movement, action, development, or achievement.

The requirement that the unit be focused upon the pupil and his needs is its unique feature. It is wholly and solely an educational device. Between the ultimate demands of society, and the present interests and capacities of children, the unit frankly turns to the latter. While these two ends may be harmonized, it is the duty of the teacher of children to see that their ultimate development is assured by providing for their present development.

While the unit stresses significant and enduring outcomes, it does not scorn factual content. Adults, and sometimes even teachers, appreciating the great value of generalizations, syntheses, and formulas, tend to forget the tortuous factual path by which they reached these significant conclusions. In such a mood the teacher may try to teach the conclusions without having the pupils tread the pathway of experience and facts. The unit, by providing the relevant and useful facts, is designed to prevent such a pedagogical error. By focusing upon a significant outcome, the unit prevents a mere survey of facts, and by including the facts, it forestalls the acquisition of a generalization which would be merely a hollow verbalism. William James once observed that one's insight into a generalization extends no further than his command of the details on which it rests. The unit provides the necessary details.

The factual content is not only important; it is indispensable. It constitutes the means, the road by which the pupil arrives at the desired goal. The facts never wear out; they can be used again and again in a variety of contexts. They are permanent steppingstones which lead to many places and not drifting rafts which serve only once.

The activities in which pupils engage in their study of a unit are equal in importance to the factual content. Indeed, without them the content is inert and lifeless. By writing, constructing, reporting, cooperating, discussing, reading, and organizing the pupil gains command of the content and reaches understanding.

The essence of the unit is the understanding which is sought. Both the contents and the activities are contributory to this main

purpose. The existence of new skills, new interests, new ideas, and new ways of reacting and behaving is evidence of the achievement of the purpose.

VARIATIONS AMONG UNITS

The unit serves many purposes in many different settings with widely varying contents and structures. Attempts to standardize these variations have caused writers to talk about kinds and types of units. So one hears of units of work, source units, resource units, experience units, activity units, content units, history units, geography units, and even the absurdity of "a topical unit." Some writers speak of teacher units and pupil units.

Some units are long and detailed; others are brief and general. Some stress activities and some stress content. Some are teacher-made and teacher-taught; others are evolved by the pupils. Some are stated in challenging phrases and others have conventional titles. Some are divided into ten steps and others into as few as five.

With respect to purpose, various units are directed toward the acquisition of skill, information, quality, ability, understanding, generalization, or attitude. With respect to scope, some are short and restricted, for example, a unit on *wheat*; some are more inclusive, for example, *grains*; and others are still more inclusive, for example, *food*. With respect to sources, some units draw solely from history, for example, *colonial migration*; some from several subjects, for example, *taxation*; and others from all fields, for example, *inventions*. With respect to activities, some units provide primarily questions; others involve construction; others call for trips; and still others use all these and a dozen other kinds of activities. Thus it is evident that units, like persons, differ among themselves.

In spite of all attempts to classify units and in spite of all the variations, all of them have the three fundamental elements — a significant purpose, pupil activities, and pertinent materials through which to achieve the purpose. Consequently it seems desirable to speak henceforth of units, without attaching qualifying adjectives.

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PREPARING UNITS

A unit either contains or indicates all the contents and activities which are thought to be necessary to achieve the objective. The typical resource unit consists of such steps as follows: (1) the setting, which is a statement of the formula used in selecting the unit, the names of the preceding and following units, thus showing the over-all plan and the continuity of the whole series; (2) objectives, preferably few and realistic; (3) fairly full outline of contents; (4) activities for pupils, closely integrated with the objectives and contents; (5) bibliographies for teacher and pupils; (6) visual and auditory aids; (7) culmination, preferably a product, a program, a summary, or some specific evidence of achievement; (8) evaluation, including a test, records, and other kinds of data of an evaluative type.

The outline above is suggestive and not prescriptive. Some steps may be divided into two or more, and others may be merged, but none of these elements can wisely be omitted. The specific plan may not be fundamental, but it is imperative that the *teacher* prepare at least *one* unit in thorough and complete detail. No other professional duty pays larger dividends.

The careful preparation of a unit requires a review and a clarification of one's educational philosophy; definitizing objectives; extensive reading and gathering of data and materials; acquaintance with textbooks, references, pamphlets, and articles; an up-to-date knowledge of films and radio programs; resourceful use of motivating devices and teaching procedures; the making of valid instruments of measurement; and a thoughtful review of the whole teaching process.

While it is the duty of the teacher to prepare some of her own units, she cannot be expected to write all of them. Fortunately she can find specific and concrete help. (1) Educational magazines publish helpful units which have been developed by other teachers and pupils. Such units can sometimes form the basis of planning. (2) Units can be prepared by committees, thus lessening the labor for each teacher. (3) Good units should be filed and used again, with all the modifications which changed

situations require. Some will soon be outmoded, but others will retain their value. The ebbing away of the original spirit which accompanied the writing of the unit makes an old one somewhat less appealing, but conscientious reviewing sometimes restores it to a high plane. (4) Some libraries maintain collections of units which can be withdrawn, modified, and used. (5) Several publishers are releasing unit booklets on a variety of topics and problems. (6) Encyclopedias contain excellent treatments of many topics. Much of this information can be utilized in making units. (7) Lastly, and by no means least, the textbooks provide pertinent and well-organized materials on nearly every topic in the social studies field.

While these various sources and aids can and should be used, none of them should replace teacher-planned units. The conscientious teacher can seldom accept a ready-made unit without at least some modification. It is possible, however, to carry self-reliance and independence too far. It may lead to ignoring or rejecting worth-while units because of pride or impatience. The busy teacher should not hesitate to utilize all available help in making units.

The writing of units by teachers is an educational revolution. No such achievement was probable two decades ago. For years the teacher was the transmitter of textbook materials. She had and expected no place in making the curriculum. Then followed that brief period when the curriculum expert was abroad in the land, telling teachers what to teach. We are now entering a period in which the social scientist, the psychology expert, and consultants are willing to help *teachers*. Teachers cannot afford to let the present opportunity pass. Never before have they had such freedom and such responsibility. It is a challenge to them to prove by thorough scholarship, sound educational principles, alert grasp of social realities, and craftsmanship of high quality that they deserve and intend to retain the leadership which they have won.

OUTLINES FOR UNITS

The organization and contents of units vary greatly. No standardized form has been evolved or accepted. The two following

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plans are representative of general practice. The first one differs only slightly from the plan described above.

STEPS IN PREPARING A UNIT

1. Setting — preceding and following units
2. Objectives — individual and social
3. Planning — what to do
4. Activities — how to do it
5. Content — indicated rather than developed
6. Supplies — materials needed
7. References — pupils and teacher
8. Culmination — a program, an exhibit, a dramatization, or demonstration
9. Evaluation — tests, changes in behavior

The Minnesota plan¹ is as follows:

1. Title, often stated as a problem
2. General statement of purpose
3. Outcomes expected — understandings, attitudes, skills
4. Specific problems, recognized by pupil as necessary
5. Planned learning experiences — introductory, developmental, culminating
6. Materials — books, periodicals, audio-visual aids for teacher and pupil
7. Evaluation — in terms of expected outcomes

TRANSITION OF THE UNIT

In its initial form the unit is an instrument prepared by the teacher. It reflects sound scholarship and guarantees thorough preparation. It is a synthesis of selected portions of social experience; it is a tentative, a temporary plan. The teacher recognizes in advance, however, that the plan will be greatly modified in application. Nevertheless the unit provides useful skills, information, and experiences; it bridges the gap between the social experience of society and the relative inexperience of the

¹ *Guide for Instruction in the Social Studies: Elementary School, Grades 1-8.* State of Minnesota, Department of Education, St. Paul, 1949, page 141.

pupils. At this stage the nature and purpose of the unit are indicated by such phrases as resource unit and teacher unit.

Before its utilization by pupils the resource unit must be transformed into a learnable, acceptable instrument. It undergoes an extensive and sometimes radical transformation. Parts of it are accepted by the pupils, parts rejected, and most of it greatly modified. Henceforth it is a "pupil unit" or an "experience unit." The unit as a reservoir of socially useful materials with a logical organization becomes a functioning unit; it is ready to serve the purpose for which the original edition was prepared.

This distinction between the unit in preparation and in application is fundamental. Recognition of the necessity and desirability of transforming the teacher unit into the experience unit assures its success in the classroom. Only the teacher can change a static unit into a dynamic instrument.

TEACHER-PUPIL PLANNING

The construction of a unit by the teacher is only the first step in the process of its utilization. The teacher must adapt and adjust it to the class. This process, when conscientiously and humbly carried out, will inevitably involve the making of many changes in the unit. The purpose may need restatement, additional questions and problems are sure to arise, new sources will be discovered, the need for new activities will be realized, and new outcomes may be visualized by alert and imaginative pupils. In such a situation the teacher will cheerfully renounce her pride of authorship, abandon her pet plans, and help to recreate the unit in the living workshop of the classroom.

Whether the teacher prepares a unit or utilizes one which has already been prepared, she is responsible for the first step in planning. She should understand the formula which is used for selecting units, choose which one she will use, see the connections from one to the next, utilize motivating approaches, select and indicate some experiences and activities, indicate at least some of the contents and sources, and clarify the over-all objective. But in spite of all this careful planning she must go to class with a willingness to modify almost every detail if she can thereby promote learning more effectively.

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The pupils should have a large part in unit planning. They should contribute most of the questions and problems; they should suggest or at least plan the details of the trips, projects, and other activities; they should compile the list of necessary data and find the sources; they should state the possible outcomes and defend their choices; and they should have a large share in making the tests and setting up the standards by which their work will be appraised.

Pupil participation takes time and trouble. The teacher who aspires to complete a given number of units may be tempted to do more of the planning herself. If the purpose is to cover the ground or run through a given number of units, the teacher can, of course, make such progress by lessening the part which the pupils take. If the purpose, however, is to promote their development, the teacher will have to resign herself to their pace. They need time to see how to carry out very simple tasks. A trip, the planting of some seeds, the making of a mural, the construction of a stage, the writing of a play — in fact, any fruitful activity will have to be understood, accepted, and carried out by the pupils if it is to yield the maximum values.

Pupil planning and self-direction is not a fetish; it is an educational and psychological necessity. Even after a resourceful teacher does all she can, the pupils must accept and carry on. They, as well as the teacher, must have purpose, generate interest, and accept responsibilities. Within their own group they develop leaders, discover ways of cooperating, and pass judgment upon the value of what they have done.

In addition to the specific purposes and expected outcomes, teachers and pupils should be aware of the inevitable concomitant outcomes. These are even more varied and numerous when the pupils are actively participating. Some concomitant learnings are antithetical to the avowed purposes and so negate them. For example, while the class was practicing cooperative planning, one child, feeling that he was excluded, was actually learning anti-social behavior. On the other hand, while hunting for material on frontier houses, one pupil became interested in wild life. All the pupils are constantly *learning* their attitudes toward the teacher, the school, the textbook, the assignment, and their class.

mates; they are *learning* habits and character traits. No matter what topic, fact, or idea is being discussed it (possibly) and other matters (certainly) are being learned. Concomitant learnings are numerous, and the teacher who is sensitive to the fact that they are always present can promote desirable and try to prevent undesirable learnings. An awareness of the presence of concomitant learnings is also an antidote to the assumption that pupils are learning what they appear to be learning.

ACTIVITIES IN THE UNIT

The lists of activities which can be used to promote the purposes of a unit are almost as long as the qualities of a good teacher or the duties of a housewife. Some compilations of such lists run into the hundreds. In order to prevent the growth of the notion that activity is its own means and end, the teacher should ask some searching questions as to the qualifications of proposed activities. Perhaps the following criteria will prove helpful in selecting relevant and excluding irrelevant or distracting activities.

CRITERIA FOR SELECTING UNIT ACTIVITIES

1. Does a proposed activity contribute to the objective?
2. Can the pupils actually carry it out?
3. Does it appeal to the pupils?
4. Does it involve both individual and group planning?
5. Are the necessary materials available or obtainable?
6. Is it in proportion to its possible value?
7. Is its connection or value obvious to the pupils?
8. Does it utilize the community?
9. Does it involve every pupil?
10. Are the activities varied from unit to unit?
11. Do the activities involve varied ways of learning?

The resourceful teacher will not have a construction project as the culminating activity in three successive units; neither will she fall back on endless discussion as the easiest of activities. She will see that her repertory is stocked with as many vital and varied activities as possible, and she will use them in particular units as they seem to meet the criteria given above. Perhaps a list of the principal types or kinds of activities will be helpful.

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The reader is challenged to make this list significant by giving two concrete instances under each heading.

SUGGESTED TYPES OF LEARNING EXPERIENCES

1. **LEARNING:** listening, reading, memorizing, assimilating, understanding, organizing, recalling
2. **EXPERIMENTING:** asking, proving, searching, thinking, examining, testing, trying, investigating
3. **CREATING:** drawing, modeling, writing, constructing, talking, painting, sculpturing, acting, dramatizing, gardening
4. **OBSERVING:** visiting, associating, appreciating, comparing, recalling, perceiving
5. **COOPERATING:** sharing, taking turns, reporting, performing, contributing, helping, talking, suggesting, criticizing, substituting, planning, participating, adjusting
6. **COLLECTING:** finding, gathering, classifying, studying, exhibiting
7. **LEADING:** announcing, ordering, persuading, commanding, convincing, demonstrating, helping
8. **FOLLOWING:** obeying, accepting, conforming, believing, listening, yielding
9. **RECREATION:** resting, dancing, singing, playing, exercising, devising, talking
10. **RECITING:** reporting, summarizing, discussing, repeating, drilling, speaking
11. **EVALUATING:** judging, concluding, measuring, weighing, comparing, contrasting, inspecting, analyzing

The acceptance of an activity because it is an activity will lead to as deadly formalism as content for content's sake. The inherent and contributory value of each one should be critically appraised before its use in a unit, and its contribution measured as definitely as possible after the close of the unit.

THE UNIT IN OPERATION

As described above, the unit as prepared by the teacher will undergo numerous changes at the hands of the pupils. In opera-

tion it will undergo still further modification, for even with the help of the pupils the teacher cannot foresee all desirable developments. The extent of these changes may tend to discourage the writing of units beforehand, but preparation by the teacher is an absolute prerequisite to intelligent planning and modification in the classroom. Perhaps it is desirable to trace a typical unit on its way through the classroom.

1. APPROACH. The first step in putting a unit into operation is to provide an appealing approach or recognize and develop one which the pupils supply. Sometimes a minor point in the preceding unit, a thoughtful question of the previous month, or some minor aspect of a field trip gives rise to a new interest and its development into a unit. The purpose is to arouse interest by developing some background. When the pupils know enough about the new unit they can ask questions and make plans, and the purpose of this first step is to supply background and stimulate interest. The teacher should not hurry the pupils through this first step. The selection of a new unit and the approach should certainly not be completed in one day. In fact, the teacher who has planned her units in advance can work on the approach to a new unit while she is still in the midst of the preceding one. The slow piling up of facts and the growth of an interest should be unhurried.

The approach should be a period of transition from the preceding unit and orientation in the new one. Its purpose is to create a climate of interest. An excerpt, a picture, a film, an item in the newspaper, a local event, or a new book may be the instrument for generating anticipation and developing eagerness and willingness. This period of orientation must be successful in order to insure the success of the whole unit.

2. PLANNING. The principle of pupil planning was discussed above. Here is the place where it fits into the unit procedure. Following the introduction of the problem posed in the unit and its preliminary treatment in the approach, the teacher and pupils are now ready to lay their plans. Questions are asked, obstacles identified, suggestions made, sources mentioned, activities suggested, and procedures adopted. The teacher or a selected pupil may use the blackboard and serve as secretary and moderator.

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Free discussion ensues. Plans are evolved, committees are appointed, and the whole class serves as a committee on ways and means. The planning period also requires time, patience, and thoughtful guidance. Not every suggestion is worthy of adoption. The teacher must be critical as well as helpful in evolving the plans.

3. ASSIMILATION. This phase of the unit procedure consists of study and action. The committees work on their assigned tasks, trips are made, sources are read, and some of the many activities listed above are employed. The teacher is busy seeing that each committee understands its function and is making progress. She must synthesize the work of all committees. She may have to intercede with some groups to see that particular individuals are not neglected or excluded. She helps to locate desired books and materials and keeps general oversight of the whole undertaking. During this stage some teachers feel a slight sense of relaxation, trusting the pupils to carry on without much additional help. While pupils in the upper grades do sometimes work for hours without needing help, the teacher runs a considerable risk in withdrawing her active supervision.

The assimilation phase is the time when pupils need to recognize and utilize all possible sources. A mere enumeration of the most common sources will help to show the importance of this phase and also why it is usually the longest single one in the unit procedure.

SOURCES OF PUPIL DATA

1. Maps	6. Books	11. Pictures
2. Encyclopedias	7. Magazines	12. Cartoons
3. Yearbooks	8. Newspapers	13. Interviews
4. Pamphlets	9. Radio	14. Trips
5. Bulletins	10. Movies	15. Television

4. PRESENTATION. The fourth phase of the unit procedure involves a significant social situation. It provides the audience for committees and individuals who make their reports to the whole class and display their products, such as murals, scrapbooks, drawings, pictures, charts, and objects of construction. Some of the committees may read reports, present plays, and read poems.

From the standpoint of the pupils some units are completed with their presentation to the class. It is often desirable, however, to have a larger audience than the class, and so many teachers regularly have a fifth step.

5. CULMINATION. The culmination of a unit usually consists of a play, a game involving drill or review, an assembly program, a mural, a song, or some product or activity to which the whole class contributes. It is desirable that an audience be provided, even if it is no bigger than the patient and accommodating principal who comes at a stated hour. His coming has its effects upon the quality of work and upon the enthusiasm of the pupils. Even better is to have the children invite at least a small group of parents or another class.

6. EVALUATION. The final step in the unit procedure is evaluation. In taking it the teacher can use all the tests, records, and types of appraisal which can be used in measuring any kind of performance (see Chapter 23).

While a teacher may present a unit in terms of these major divisions, in practice she seldom divides it into such sharply marked steps or phases. In fact, the pupils usually carry on several different kinds of activities simultaneously. Sometimes one type of activity, such as planning or creating, predominates and permeates the whole unit. Thus the six somewhat formal steps discussed here constitute an analysis of what occurs rather than a description of a sequence of development. Throughout the unit the teacher is busy in appraising it and in evaluating the performance of individual pupils. In the middle and upper grades a test is necessary to help the teacher quantify her judgment of pupils, and other kinds of data concerning pupil performance will be gathered and appraised.

A RESERVOIR OF UNITS¹

The approximate order of contents and materials in the social studies is well established. Experience rather than research has led to the general acceptance of the principle of widening hori-

¹ For these unit lists I am indebted to one of my graduate students, Miss E. Louise Curtis of the University of Minnesota.

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zons, and this principle applies to geography, civics, history, economic activities, and above all to social relationships. It is therefore feasible to make a list of units that are representative of widespread practices in the United States.

Below is presented a set of guiding principles and a list of suggested unit titles. The criteria for selecting the units are given in terms of basic processes. Since these processes overlap and supplement one another, no unit falls wholly within a particular process. The ten unit titles for each grade constitute more than a year's work, and so the teacher can choose those that emphasize the desired process and are most appropriate for a particular group. The lists thus serve as a reservoir from which to select specific titles, or it may be used as suggestive of other units and activities that can be devised.

During the course of a year it is desirable that each process receive its proportionate attention. Thus the processes serve as guides to selecting the units. For example, in Grade I a teacher may feel that more attention should be given to process 7, "Engaging in recreation." She might then select units 2 and 6. Or in Grade II, a teacher might wish to emphasize process 1, "Making a living." Consequently she might choose units 3 and 7. Thus the reservoir is suggestive of units and of principles to guide their selection.

BASIC PROCESSES

- 1. Making a living
- 2. Maintaining life and health
- 3. Conserving material resources
- 4. Cooperating in group action
- 5. Securing an education
- 6. Expressing spiritual and esthetic values
- 7. Engaging in recreation
- 8. Communicating and transporting
- 9. Making a home
- 10. Getting along with others

DEVELOPING AND EXPERIENCING UNITS
SUGGESTED UNITS

GRADE I	Living at Home and School	Numbers refer to basic processes listed above
	1. How family members contribute 2. How people at school contribute 3. Working and playing together safely 4. Keeping well and strong 5. How seasons affect us 6. How we observe special days 7. Making our schoolroom more attractive 8. How we get our houses 9. Foods that make us grow 10. How we get our clothing 11. How members of the family travel and communicate	1,2,4,5,9 2,4,5,6,7,10 2,4,10 2,4 3,6,7,9 4,6,7,10 4,6 1,2,9 2,3,8 2,3,8 8
GRADE II	Living in the Community	
	1. Community workers who help us 2. How members of the family help the community 3. How our community gets its food 4. How our community protects our health 5. Traveling in our community 6. How our community library helps us 7. How the farmer helps our community 8. How the community secures shelter 9. How the community secures clothing 10. Making our community attractive	1-10 1-10 1,3,8 2,4 8 4,5,7 1,8 1,2,3,6,9 1,2,3 3,4,6,7,8

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GRADE III	How Communities Develop	Numbers refer to basic processes listed above
	<ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1. People who live here before us 2. How pioneers secured their food 3. How pioneers secured shelter 4. How pioneers secured clothing 5. How pioneers traveled and communicated 6. How our schools developed 7. How communities help each other 8. How inventions changed ways of living 9. How the state helps our community 10. How our state secures food, clothing, and shelter 	1-10 1,2,3,4,8 3,4,8 3,8 8 5 2,4,5,10 1,8 1-10 1-10
GRADE IV	Exploring Our Continent and Our World	
	<ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1. How people live in states around us 2. How people live in the Southern states 3. How people live in the Northeastern states 4. How people live in the Western states 5. Our world environment 6. How people live in the cold climates 7. How people live in the hot climates 8. Living in mountain countries 9. Living in the lowlands 10. Our northern and southern neighbors (Canada and Mexico) 	1-10 1-10 1-10 1-10 1-10 3,8 1-10 1-10 1-10 1-10 1-10

GRADE V	How People Live Together	Numbers refer to basic processes listed above
	1. How we protect life and health 2. What the farmer contributes to us 3. How city workers contribute to the farmer 4. How machines have changed ways of working 5. How transportation and communication are important 6. How life in the city compares with life on the farm 7. Workers who provide us with other raw materials (miners, fishermen, etc.) 8. Why good government is necessary 9. Learning to use our national resources wisely 10. How our social institutions have developed	2,4 1,3,8 1,3,8 1,2,3,7,8 4,5,7,8 1-10 1-10 4,8,10 3,4,7,6 4,5,6,7,10
GRADE VI	Contributions of Early Man	
	1. Primitive man 2. How the first nations grew 3. Ideas about government from Greece and Rome 4. How people lived in the Middle Ages 5. How modern nations grew 6. How new lands were discovered 7. Why people came to America 8. The New World develops new governments 9. Gifts from the Old World 10. Learning to live together in the world — the United Nations	1-10 1-10 4,5,6,8 1-10 1,3,4,5,8 1,4,8 1,4,6,8 4,5,8 1-10 1-10

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GRADE VII	The Story of the Development of Our Country	Numbers refer to basic processes listed above
	<ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1. How America was discovered 2. How America was settled 3. Living in Colonial America 4. How America struggled for its freedom 5. A new government is developed 6. The new nation gains more territory 7. The new government struggles for necessary power (states rights vs. federal) 8. How big industries grew in the United States 9. Growth of cities brings problems 10. The United States and the United Nations 	1,4,8 1,4,6,8 1-10 1,4,8 4 3,4,5,8 1,4,8 1,8 1,2,3,4,5 1-10

GRADE VIII	Living in Today's World	
	<ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1. This world of ours: its natural resources 2. Feeding the people of the world 3. Man makes goods for his use 4. Man exchanges goods 5. Being a good citizen in our city 6. Being a good citizen in the state 7. Being a good citizen of the nation 8. Being a good citizen of the world 9. How the government of the United States compares with others 10. Learning to live with people of different beliefs 	1,3,8 1,2,3,8 1 1,8 1-10 1-10 1-10 1-10 4 10

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15. PERMANENT OUTCOMES OF THE SOCIAL STUDIES

THE PERMANENT CURRICULUM

Everyone is aware of the fact that there are levels or degrees of importance among curricular materials. The trained student knows that Yorktown is more significant than Cowpens, that the powers of Congress are more important than the numbers of judicial districts in Michigan, and that conservation of the soil is more fundamental than developing a new variation of forsythia. The skillful reader recognizes the value of a topic sentence and distinguishes it from a developmental one; he knows that a summary embodies more than a supporting detail.

Through years of study and experience the adult has learned to give attention to the pertinent and fundamental and to ignore much of what he sees, hears, and reads. The pupil, however, confronted with a multitude of statements and varied types of materials is often bewildered to the point of frustration. He does not have the discernment to select those words, statements, and explanations that are keys to understanding. He needs a teacher who can help him discriminate; to recognize and to select for mastery that which is of most worth.

In preceding chapters the curriculum was defined as those contents and activities which the school selects to effect learning. The extent of content is almost limitless and activities are so numerous as to defy enumeration. Confronted with thousands of facts, hundreds of interpretations, and scores of syntheses, the pupil is naturally confused as to what he should learn. He gazes at a page of history and wonders what deserves emphasis. Is this name, date, event, or interpretation to be temporarily recognized in this particular context; is it to be associated with other similar

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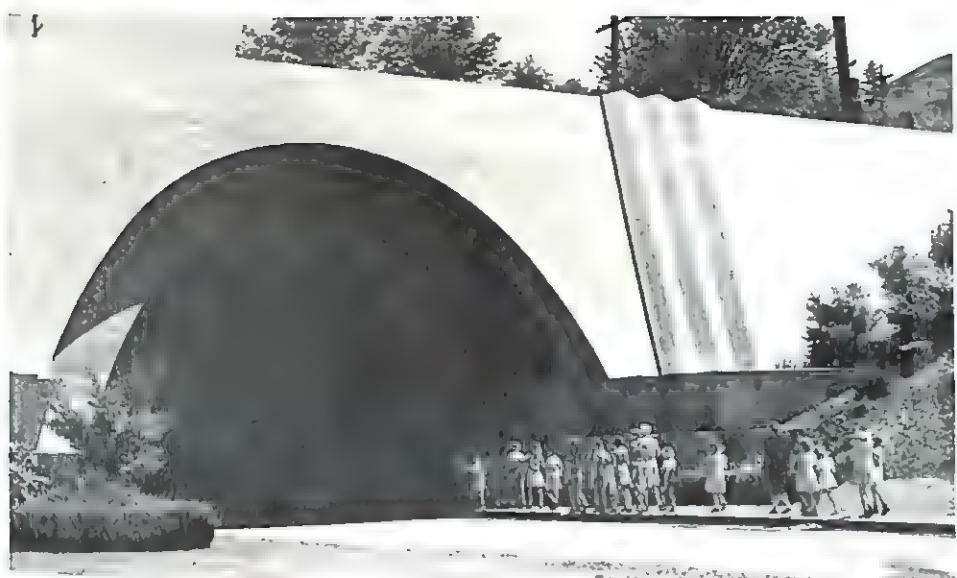
elements; is it to be memorized; or is it to be learned to the point of mastery? From a list of the eight most important products of Minnesota should he, or is he expected to, learn any of them, or learn one, two, five, or all eight? What is he supposed to do with this list of the duties of a mayor?

The pupil faces such perplexities daily, almost hourly. Whether he is reading, listening, or engaging in an activity, he must raise the persistent question of what is worthy of attention, what should be learned. The untrained pupil cannot distinguish the significant from the ancillary, the permanent from the temporary, or the principal from the secondary. Frequently he evades the issue and finds the answer in terms of what-it-is-the-teacher-wants. Thus he often substitutes what he thinks the teacher wants for any real growth in the development of discrimination.

The teacher too faces the same situation as the pupils. What should be taught? Of that which is taught, what should be stressed? Of that which is stressed, what should be repeated to the point of mastery? Failure to identify materials and allocate them to categories of relative importance is a frequent shortcoming among teachers. The pupil is thus not afforded the guidance that he needs and that he has a right to expect. Naturally, the teacher often makes wise decisions in answers to specific questions. She can distinguish a principle from an accompanying detail, a generalization from a concrete instance, and a step from a process. It would seem desirable, however, to determine in advance the important categories and to guide the pupils in their efforts to recognize what is worth learning. This chapter undertakes to help the teacher identify the permanent, transferable, repeatable curriculum as distinguished from the incidental, ancillary, or contributory one.

FINDING THE TOUCHSTONE OF IMPORTANCE

The teacher should be able to identify the elements that are permanently useful and differentiate them from the auxiliary or accompanying materials. Only when she can recognize this difference is she able to render expert professional service. Then she will be able to know that what is taught is not for today only but for the lifetime of the pupil. Perhaps a view of adult atti-



FIELD TRIPS ENABLE PUPILS TO UTILIZE THE WHOLE COMMUNITY AS A LABORATORY.



GROUP PLAY PROMOTES THE GROWTH OF SOCIAL SKILLS AND COOPERATION.



UNDER EXPERT GUIDANCE CHILDREN SEE MORE AND UNDERSTAND BETTER.

PERMANENT OUTCOMES OF THE SOCIAL STUDIES

tudes toward school learning will help to identify the permanent outcomes of social studies instruction.

Adults frequently appraise their school training. As teachers realize full well, these appraisals lean toward the critical rather than the appreciative. The typical adult is inclined to make harsh judgments and severe criticisms because of omissions and defects in his training. He believes that his teachers, had they been expert and resourceful, could have saved him from some bitter and wasteful experiences. Failing to remember what he learned or was supposed to have learned in elementary school as distinguished from high school or college, he is likely to merge all his school years into one unbroken continuum. Had his teachers taught him, he assumes, how to use a map, how to follow printed directions, how to write a letter, how to conduct an interview, how to be at ease socially, and how to read, study, remember, and think, he would today be a far happier and more prosperous person than he is.

Adult appraisals are often unreliable and inexact. As the years go by, the adult is likely to confuse what he learns through subsequent study and experience with what he learned in school. The study skills and basic information contributed by the school are obscured by more recent acquisitions. Thus adult appreciations and criticisms are blends of well-remembered incidents and achievements in school compounded with subsequent experiences and slowly evolved attitudes.

Adult appraisals are likely also to vary with temperament and experience. The slow, patient person may be fully satisfied with his grammar school training, happy over his high school years, and smugly proud of his college, whereas the more impatient or ambitious person laments his inadequate school program and proposes a number of reforms and changes.

In spite of their inexactness and confusions, these adult appraisals are of value to teachers. They clarify the recognition of what is ancillary and ephemeral as differentiated from what is permanent and transferable. They thus help the teacher to identify the basic repeatables. What then are the permanent and transferable outcomes of social studies instruction?

PERMANENT OUTCOMES

The fundamental and lasting outcomes of social studies instruction can be identified rather specifically. Principles of selection can be applied. The permanent outcomes can be grouped under five headings:

1. Concepts
2. Information
3. Generalizations
4. Skills
5. Processes

Fortunate is the pupil whose teacher recognizes the difference (1) between a connective or qualifying word and an inclusive social *concept*, (2) between an ephemeral detail and socially useful *information*, (3) between a trivial deduction and a valid *generalization*, (4) between a rarely used device and a permanent *skill*, (5) between an isolated step and a repeatable *process*. Because these differences are so important for teachers and pupils an entire section is devoted to each.

1. CONCEPTS. Man became the ruler of the world because he learned to talk. Biologists attribute man's rise to his prehensile hand, but no social scientist would accept this as more than a contributory factor. Man's ability to communicate, to acquire the experiences, thoughts, skills, knowledge, and achievements of all preceding generations made him king of creatures. The tigers, lions, elephants, snakes, or insects might have won the struggle for supremacy had any of them found the secret of accumulating knowledge. None did, so the chattering, talking animal known as man took charge of the universe because, through communication, each man could know what all of them knew.

While much of what man said was of small consequence, he slowly learned to discriminate and to record that which was important. He then learned to disseminate it over the face of the earth and deposit it for the use of future generations. Thus our libraries may respectfully and appreciatively be designated as repositories of talk. In this process of communication identifica-

PERMANENT OUTCOMES OF THE SOCIAL STUDIES

tion labels, familiarly called words, are indispensable. Thus language is the basic factor in human progress.

Progress in any sport, occupation, or subject is dependent upon the acquisition of an appropriate vocabulary. While an individual alone can make minimum progress he can achieve competence only by learning from others; hence he must master the specialized concepts that are basic to progress in a particular area. In fact, success in general is closely related to the ability to use words. They are the measure of intelligence, the royal road to learning, the means of human progress, the key to the storehouse of accumulated knowledge.

The specialized vocabulary of a game, an office, a machine shop, or a store is easily acquired. The primary and practical aspects of such vocabularies consist of their denotations; hence they present minimum difficulties to learners.

Concepts in the social relationships, however, are more difficult. Consider the increasing complexity of such words as *boy*, *group*, *friendship*, *constitution*, *institution*, and *sovereignty*. Most social concepts (see Chapter 20) refer to some kind or aspect of human relationship. Hence the pupil may need more help in learning the vocabulary of this field than he needs for the vocabulary of science or arithmetic. At the elementary level simple social concepts can be identified. Their denotations and some of their connotations can be learned and appreciated. Words that designate qualities and complex social relationships and abstractions are more difficult.

Social concepts have been described and identified by many writers (see Chapter 18 and its bibliography). The specialized vocabularies of civics, sociology, American history, and various other subjects have been listed and identified. Thus the most functional words in the social studies have been assembled and listed. The teacher can find considerable guidance in selecting the fundamental concepts that deserve emphasis. Since progress in school study, personal satisfaction, social usefulness, and adult success depend so much upon the accuracy and specificity of communication, it behooves the teacher to see that pupils develop discrimination in the use of social concepts. Only when they are

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so equipped are they able to understand people, social institutions, and human progress. Important concepts are permanent, repeatable, and transferable. They become the possessions of a lifetime.

2. REPEATABLE INFORMATION. The second group of permanent outcomes consists of socially useful information. The materials that properly belong in this category are difficult to identify and delimit. Facts are numerous and compilations of them are extensive, and so pupils and teachers, as well as general readers, need criteria for selecting the information that has utility. Almanacs, encyclopedias, textbooks, and reference books overwhelm one with the variety and extent of their contents. The hasty or uncritical user may be oppressed with the challenge and seek to read, study, and remember much that has little value. Compilers of information, of course, do not have the responsibility of sorting and labeling the items in terms of importance. The problem of discriminating among them belongs to the user, reader, or pupil.

Social pressures to acquire information are numerous and compelling. Legislatures specify curricular content. Examinations stress the acquisition and retention of information. Social studies textbooks are filled with facts. The pupil can scarcely escape the impression that he is to learn them. Since the acquisition of even a small proportion of them is impossible, the pupil needs guidance in establishing standards of selection. While even a trivial fact may have some significance, it is far more useful to learn those that have a high index of social utility.

The principle of minimum essentials applies to information. The minimum should be determined on the basis of social utility and not in accordance with supposed psychological demands. In other words, the minimum is not a theory but a social necessity. Thus the approximate population of the United States is a fact that can be used repeatedly, whereas the population of Fargo, while significant and important, has a much more limited application. The typical citizen finds the former fact more useful. It might be convenient to know who was Secretary of State under James K. Polk, but it is far more useful to know who filled that office under Lincoln. It might be interesting to know the height

of Mt. Whitney, but it is far more useful to know the extent of the Sierra Nevada Range. What is learned should have high frequency, extensive application, and significant meaning.

Educators have not provided teachers and pupils with very much or very specific help in delimiting the field of information. Educators have compiled lists of minimum dates, names, and events; and by selection, organization, and proportionate space writers have provided some help in identifying what should be learned. Even these contributions, however, fall short of the needs of teachers and pupils. While no teacher can foresee what the pupil will eventually need, she can be sure that (a) inclusiveness, (b) frequency, and (c) significance or utility are criteria for selecting the fundamental elements from the mass of supporting or accompanying details.

(a) An inclusive fact has, of course, more value and utility than a narrowly restricted one. "The purchasing power of money has declined sixty per cent since 1938" is a fact of greater scope than the observation that "a can of paint that formerly cost ten cents now costs twenty cents." The population of the world is a more inclusive fact than the population of a province; information about a national election is broader than the returns from one precinct.

(b) Frequency of appearance or use is a key to importance. Names and events that occur again and again are worthy of more attention than infrequent and obscure ones. Mt. Everest, Stalin, Churchill, Grant, Cleveland, the American Revolution, and the Stock Exchange are deserving of more attention than Rattlesnake Peak, Platt, Sylvester Graham, Count de Gramont, Grafton, the Whiskey Rebellion, and the County Board of Supervisors. The words in the former list occur with much greater frequency than those in the latter. Social needs demand that they be recognized, whereas no one need blush to confess his ignorance of the latter.

(c) The significance or utility of a fact is an important, although somewhat intangible, criterion for selecting it for attention. For example, "Sixty per cent of the price of a house is based upon labor" is a statement of more meaning or significance than "Less than twenty per cent of the price of carpet tacks is based upon labor." This element of significance varies greatly,

but it is worthy of attention by teachers, for it helps them to discriminate among the thousands of facts that are available for pupils. Statistics concerning divorces in the United States have greater significance than the number granted in Reno. An index of wholesale or retail prices has greater utility than one showing the changes in the incomes of baseball players.

Even when these criteria are applied, the teacher and pupil will still be in doubt as to the utility, scope, or applicability of a particular statement. The separation of information into categories of relevance is a lifelong process. The pupil has made a great discovery, however, when he understands the problem and the process. He thus frees himself from the tyranny of minutiae and acquires skill in selecting the significant.

3. GENERALIZATIONS. Next to concepts, generalizations are probably the most frequently used group of permanent learnings. Concepts are the units out of which statements of fact are made, and facts are the units out of which sound generalizations evolve. Facts added to facts, whether they come from study or from experience, finally accumulate and lead the active mind to put the result into the form of a generalization. The generalization has great utility. It is the summation of previous learning and a formula for the interpretation of new facts and experiences. While few generalizations are universally valid, those which have a better than chance validity afford some guidance. They are a mental necessity; they enable one to get through the trees of fact and obtain a perspective of the woods. They are the furniture of an orderly mind. Without generalizations one's memory would become a catalogue of relatively unrelated facts.

A valid generalization is an example of learning that has a high transfer value. In fact, it is a formula for interpreting new information or experience that seems to fit into a previously acquired pattern. Thus a generalization gives meaning and significance to new acquisitions. Generalizations may be regarded as filing cabinets with systematically labeled drawers and folders. A new fact or experience can be classified under the proper heading and placed in the appropriate category.

Like concepts and facts, generalizations vary in importance, utility, and validity. Thousands of popular generalizations are

invalid and many of them are actually misleading. The causes and cures for colds, the characteristics popularly ascribed to a race or nationality, the effect of the moon upon crops, formulas for predicting the performance of the stock market, and many other groups of generalizations spring up and achieve a frequency and a popularity beyond their merits. Their very existence, however, is evidence of the utility of generalizations.

The number of valid generalizations is also impressive. Tell a lie and get caught; you get what you pay for; love is based upon service rather than gratitude; and speed causes accidents. These are examples of generalizations which have utility, even though they may not be true in a particular instance.

The social studies abound in generalizations. Settlers moved West in covered wagons; scanty rainfall involves a different type of farming; the party in power suffers losses in off-year elections; as the supply increases prices go down. These are examples of the thousands of generalizations that are found in the social studies. While generalizations can be memorized and utilized somewhat blindly, they have greatest value when the pupil can cite specific instances that support the generalization. The generalization which the pupil himself makes is the one that has greatest value. One for which the pupil can cite no specific data is probably of little value to him. Since the social studies abound in generalizations it is a difficult field for many pupils. Hence the study of science and literature is also necessary because these subjects provide the concrete and specific instances that give meaning to many of the generalizations in the social studies.

4. SKILLS. The fourth group of permanent or transferable learnings is that of skills. When the teacher stresses the reading of a map, the improvement of reading, the writing of a letter or theme, the taking of notes, the summarizing of details, and the use of an index, dictionary, almanac, or encyclopedia, he can be assured that he is leading the pupils in the acquisition of permanent and transferable skills.

Elsewhere (Chapter 17) the acquisition and use of study skills are discussed in detail. Many of them, particularly those dealing with locating, studying, appraising, and utilizing information are valuable, not only for school years but for life. Here, however,

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the emphasis is upon those skills that can and should become permanent acquisitions for adults as well as for students. These life skills, as they may be designated, are outgrowths of and additions to study skills.

It would be difficult to make even a representative list of life skills. It is sufficient for the purpose to indicate some of the major groups, such as professional, civic, economic, personal, social, and vocational. Toward all these, no matter to what stage of perfection they are subsequently developed, the schools make their contribution. The man who becomes a successful farmer, doctor, mechanic, or businessman has built upon the study skills acquired in school, has added the practice of skill in social relationships, has developed a mature personality, and has acquired other skills that enable him to achieve satisfaction in life.

While the teacher cannot foresee or contribute specifically to life skills, he can be assured that they are necessary to satisfactory and successful living. Hence skill in cooperation, attitudes of helpfulness, and understanding of other persons must be promoted in school. They can be and inevitably are blended with study skills, even though the latter may seem like temporary developments. The teacher who sees their complex and inclusive nature will realize that a skill, such as finding material on a particular topic, will subsequently be as valuable for the adult citizen as it is immediately useful to the pupil. Perhaps then it is an understanding on the part of the teacher that will enable him to realize the far-reaching consequences of skills and the importance of his recognizing them as a part of the permanent and transferable curriculum. With this understanding he will realize that skill in using an index has repeatable value, that he is teaching a pupil to use, not only the index of a schoolbook, but the guide to a compilation of corporation statistics. Viewing skills in this way, the teacher sees that he is training the pupils for both present and future living.

5. PROCESSES. The fifth category of permanent outcomes from social studies instruction consists of processes. A process is a systematic procedure that utilizes concepts, information, generalizations, and skills. A process becomes a permanent acquisition because it combines various elements into a meaningful pattern

and because it is based upon the sound principle of learning by doing. The careful compilation of a bibliography is an experience that leads to the acquisition of a permanent and transferable process. The details may fade from memory but the process remains. The pupil who constructs a map becomes master of scales, directions, and symbols. He acquires a lasting process. The pupil who reads, makes notes, organizes, and writes a report acquires a process that has repeatable, even regenerative qualities. The pupil who solves a problem and consciously identifies the steps may emerge with a valuable process that can be transferred and adapted to the solution of other problems. The pupil who endeavors to learn by experimenting, by trying again and again and checking results, may emerge with a process that will have lasting value for him.

A process utilizes skills and is in some cases an expansion of a skill. For example, it would be difficult to say whether outlining and summarizing are skills or processes. If they are developed into broad, transferable patterns they may be regarded as processes; if they remain simply as study aids or devices they are primarily skills. A process is also closely akin to a generalization. The latter, however, is a statement, conclusion, or law that has predictive value, whereas a process involves systematic and somewhat extended action. The generalization is perceived, understood, and sometimes applied, whereas the process is a guiding formula for action. In a process the pupil is utilizing details that become obscure with the passage of time, but before they fade from memory they have been worked into a process, procedure, or method that remains as a permanent acquisition.

SUMMARY

This chapter endeavors to provide formulas for selecting the significant from the comparatively insignificant, the key idea from a subsidiary embellishment. It proposes that teachers and pupils jointly undertake the task of making the distinctions that lead to more meaningful results in the social studies. Utilization of the formulas will, it is believed, free the pupils from expanding efforts on peripheral elements and enable them to emerge from a school year with more permanent and more significant learnings.

It is well to note that this chapter deals with the permanent outcomes of the social studies curriculum. From other fields and from education in general there are other permanent outcomes. For example, no pupil can emerge from the elementary school without having acquired a number of attitudes. These, however, are derived from his family, his playmates, the neighborhood, the school, and the general social setting. Only to a small extent are they derived from the social studies curriculum. The pupil also emerges with habits, character traits, and personality traits. On all these the social studies curriculum has its effects, but only a sentimental romanticism would credit or blame this one field for such total outcomes. In the case of the five outcomes described above, however, the social studies curriculum can be and should be regarded as responsible and determinative.

The five kinds, groups, or types of permanent outcomes have been called (1) concepts, (2) socially useful information, (3) generalizations, (4) skills, and (5) processes. Other labels could have been used, and the number of categories could have been extended. These five, however, are unquestionably valid; they do identify and classify the major types of lasting outcomes. The teacher and pupil who undertake to use them as touchstones of value will probably secure enriched results.

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While not written for the specific purpose of identifying permanent outcomes, this chapter nevertheless does indicate some of them. While this analysis differs somewhat from that given in the preceding pages of this book, the two are supplementary rather than contradictory.

PERMANENT OUTCOMES OF THE SOCIAL STUDIES

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Part 5

METHODS AND PROCEDURES

16. UTILIZING METHODS

IMPORTANCE OF METHOD

It is an obvious fact that one learns better from some persons than from others. Boys are keenly sensitive to their scout leader. They quickly perceive his competence in setting up a tent, building a fire, locating fish, and running a camp. A competent leader knows both how to do things and how to develop confidence in the boys so that they too can do things. A good teacher is one who makes colleagues out of his students.

One section boss on the railroad maintains a better track than another boss who has a similar crew. The better boss secures results because he knows how to enlist the cooperation and good will of the workers. In other words, he employs better methods.

Method performs a great function in business and professional areas. The salesman seeks to develop new and more effective approaches. The lawyer tries various devices to influence juries. The advertiser compares various kinds of appeals to determine their relative effectiveness. The actor studies the reaction of his audience and modifies his acting. All these diligently seek to discover the most effective methods of transforming their wishes and attitudes into the changed behavior of their audiences.

In education method has a long and honorable history. In various ages educators have stressed content, equipment, visual aids, the psychology of learning, logical organization, the nature and capacity of the pupils, and teacher preparation. All these are interwoven with method. While method can be abstracted for the purpose of study and analysis, it has no functioning existence except in the complex web of materials and pupils. The teacher who seeks to develop the most effective methods comes to appreciate the fact that the whole educative process possesses an inevitable unity.

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Method is fundamental in the educative process. Good methods can be quickly distinguished from poor ones. Everyone recognizes the value of having a skillful teacher. When one wishes to learn to swim, dance, make a speech, play bridge, invest money, catch a fish, drive an automobile, sell a product, or to learn any new skill or process he tries to find a good teacher. He quickly forms an opinion as to the teacher's competence. A good teacher imparts his knowledge, skill, or leadership tactfully and often indirectly; he not only inspires confidence in himself but he also directs the learner in such a way that he gains assurance and develops confidence in himself. Thus the good teacher brings the learner up to his own level.

While method depends largely upon the knowledge and personality of the teacher there are fundamental principles that can be learned by anyone who wishes to teach others. While method consists of many elements it is more than a collection of tricks, artifices, and ruses; it is a systematic pattern into which are woven knowledge, purpose, skill, respect for others, and a combination of the basic means of communication.

NATURE OF METHOD

Being a functioning procedure, method is, of course, interwoven with purpose, curriculum, grading, equipment, pupil reactions, evaluation, and all other parts of the educative process. In spite of this functioning complexity, however, it is desirable and feasible to abstract method from its setting for the purpose of examination and analysis.

Method belongs primarily to the teacher. It is his responsibility to find effective ways of guiding pupils to learn and develop. The extent to which they do is the measure of efficacy of his method. The three elements directly involved in method are the teacher, the curriculum, and the pupil. The teacher is the prime mover, the host, the guide, the integrator.

Method is the procedure of so guiding and directing the experiences of children that they learn. While learning is necessarily an individual process, instruction is both an individual and a group process. Random efforts sometimes bring results, of course, but for that reason no teacher is justified in neglecting the study

of planned and organized methods. They are economical; they systematize effort; they insure attention to all aspects of learning. Methods are the pedagogical means by which the ends of pupil learning are effected. Whoever scorns methods scorns teaching.

The function of the teacher is to cause pupils to learn by direct experience, by reading, by listening, by trying, by experimenting. The teacher as taskmaster, as driver, as inspector is an outmoded concept; the pupil as a mere receiver is even more outmoded. Yet these trends in no wise minimize the importance of method. They emphasize shifts in purpose and in educational philosophy as well as changes in the nature of method. Progress in understanding the nature of learning has involved progress in methods. Teacher-pupil planning is a great advance over assignments; construction activities by pupils are a far cry from teacher demonstrations. Method must keep pace with our knowledge of child development and of the psychology of learning.

TEACHING MEANS COMMUNICATING

Everyone has had the baffling experience of speaking to the empty air. Assuming that the other person was within hearing, he has continued the conversation, only to realize that his words did not arrive. The realization that he had enunciated but not communicated induced a sense of futility and frustration. Possibly the teacher should ponder this experience and inquire as to the completeness of communication in the classroom. Does the explanation explain? Do the pupils receive the message of the graph? They seem to agree, but do they understand that to which they give verbal assent?

Communicating means sharing, participating. The speaker only starts the process; the hearer must complete it. There are many barriers to communication. Age is one such barrier. The father finds it difficult to communicate with his son and the son also senses the difficulty. Sex is another barrier. While boys and women, girls and men can talk to one another, they are shut off from complete understanding in many areas. The preacher finds it difficult to talk to the mechanic about mechanical things and the teacher is ill at ease in talking to the lawyer about law. The

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cultivated person has incomplete contacts with the untutored. The brilliant person scorns the dull average. And most noticeable in the world of education, the educated has unsatisfactory contacts with the ignorant. Even in school the teacher sometimes senses a gulf between herself and the pupils.

How can these and other barriers be removed? Professional skill will enable the teacher to remove many of them. A better understanding of children, sympathy and patience, a more democratic procedure and, above all, better methods will remove or at least lessen the barriers to communication. They must be removed or else the whole teaching-learning procedure will fail.

COMMUNICATION — THE BASIS OF METHODS

Teaching involves communication. The teacher has information, an idea, an attitude, a feeling, an understanding, or an undertaking that she wishes to share with the pupils. The process of transmitting these elements and receiving responses constitutes communication. The teacher plays only a part, for the process involves receiving and reacting by the pupils. Thus communication is a two-directional process, for the teacher, in addition to transmitting, must also receive. In fact, the roles may be completely reversed, and the pupils may take the initiative. Thus good teaching involves the establishment of a communication procedure that can be initiated by either teacher or pupil.

Examples of the basic procedures of communication are as follows:

1. Talking — hearing
2. Questioning — answering
3. Reading — reacting
4. Reading — listening
5. Illustrating — seeing
6. Demonstrating — imitating
7. Symbolizing — understanding
8. Writing — reading
9. Gesturing — interpreting

Other possible means of communication could doubtless be identified, but these are the principal ones. For practical purposes, then, it may be said that communication is dependent upon one

or more of these nine basic means. Out of these elements the teacher constructs the formal method; she works out a combination and a procedure that is effective in the teaching-learning situation.

For example, consider the discussion method. In addition to basic means 1 and 2 listed above, it would doubtless involve portions of 3, 4, 6, and 7. In fact, it might involve all of the means. So every method consists of various combinations of the basic means of communication. By study and experience each teacher discovers the combinations that seem to her most appropriate for various situations and groups.

This analysis shows that all subjects and fields depend upon the same basic means of communication. It shows, for example, that effective social studies teaching depends upon the proper utilization of the language arts, that science and arithmetic teaching rest upon common bases. Thus it demonstrates the unity of methods in all subjects and fields.

This analysis also shows why a method cannot be rigidly restricted or inflexibly formalized. It frees the teacher from all sense of loyalty to a particular method; it forces a recognition of the fact that methods are personal, adjustable, and flexible. Thus the teacher can acquire all the values of recommended methods and yet be free to adjust and apply them to her own situation.

KINDS OF METHODS

A teacher is apt to select some element, such as discussion, activity, or reading materials, and make it the center of her method. The use of a central element as the core of a method is defensible provided it does not lead to the minimizing or exclusion of other elements. To avoid concentration upon one element it is perhaps desirable to appreciate the various cores around which methods cluster. The principal ones are as follows:

KINDS OF METHODS

1. Equipment

- a. Construction projects
- b. Textbook method

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- c. Library method
- d. Laboratory method
- 2. Physical senses
 - a. Visual
 - b. Auditory
 - c. Motor
- 3. Teacher-pupil relationship
 - a. Teacher-pupil planning
 - b. Pupil planning
- 4. Approach to life situations
 - a. Verbal — bookish
 - b. Graphic representations
 - c. Specimens and models
 - d. Invited speakers
 - e. Field trips
 - f. Activities for training purposes
 - g. Life situations for pupils
 - h. Community participation
- 5. Teacher purpose
 - a. Drill
 - b. Explanation
 - c. Appreciation
 - d. Reasoning
 - e. Development
- 6. Socialized development
 - a. Individual assignments
 - b. Individual activities
 - c. Committee activities
 - d. Class activities
 - e. School activities
 - f. Integration into the community

The above list, while incomplete, indicates some of the most frequently recognized methods. They vary greatly in nature and probably in efficacy. It would be unwise for a teacher to depend upon any one of them as the basis of her teaching. Each one,

however, offers some contribution and should be utilized when its advantages are apparent.

The following list is designed to show the formalized procedures that are probably used most often. They are not arranged in any order of merit or importance.

MOST FREQUENTLY USED METHODS

Method	Points of emphasis
1. Unit —	materials, activities, and understanding
2. Topic —	interrelated content
3. Discussion —	freedom, social interchange, clarification
4. Project —	motor control, imagination, cooperation
5. Problem —	processes, utilizing materials, critical abilities
6. Laboratory —	equipment, experimentation
7. Lecture —	explanation, listening
8. Textbook —	reading, content, systematic organization
9. Question and answer —	clarification, drill, interchange
10. Socialized —	freedom, social skills, group solidarity

This analysis enables the teacher to appreciate the variety of methods that are available. It also implies a warning against too great a dependence upon any one method or combination of them. The freedom to make the curriculum involves the freedom to choose and modify methods in the light of specific situations. In practice no method can or should remain static; all of them yield to the purposes and procedures of particular teachers in particular classes. Method is an inclusive and modifiable process and not a predetermined formula.

SELECTING EFFECTIVE PROCEDURES

The effective teacher does not select a method; she develops an adjustable procedure that is applicable to a particular situation. Effective teaching and learning do not come as a result of merely using the visual method, or a field trip, or a discussion. Progress in social learning is the result of the subtle blending of the varied elements that constitute growth and development. Hence the teacher must choose and develop procedures in the light of a number of factors. Some of the features which should characterize

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all methods and procedures may be helpful in choosing and adjusting them to particular classes.

1. OBJECTIVES. A good procedure keeps objectives in view. The teacher who proposes to develop finding skills must utilize a procedure that calls for the use of various kinds of books, references, pictures, and other pertinent data. If the objective is growth in cooperation, the teacher must see that committees have opportunities to gather information and share it with the whole group. If the objective is the development of an attitude of sympathy and understanding, the procedure calls for an exchange of viewpoints and the practice of putting oneself in the position of another. In brief, the procedure must be selected and so modified as to achieve the objective.

2. SKILLS. A good procedure provides for the development of skills. Growth in the ability to use an index, a dictionary, and an encyclopedia, and the locating of information pertinent to a selected topic or area can be specifically developed by choosing procedures that involve such activities. Finding, selecting, organizing, and utilizing information are all necessary for pupil growth. These and other skills can be developed by choosing the procedures which involve varied and extensive practice. Practice in various kinds of skills is essential, and the teacher should see that the method chosen provides for such practice.

3. INDIVIDUAL DIFFERENCES. A good method takes account of individual differences and of individual variations. Since pupils vary extensively in interests, ability, and experience, the teacher must see that the chosen procedure allows full opportunities for a variety of activities and responses. There can justly be no such requirement as a specific level of achievement or a standardized reaction. The procedure must provide for reading materials of varying degrees of simplicity, for elastic time allotments, for the use of nonverbal materials, and for a great variety of ways of meeting individual needs.

Equally important is the requirement that the procedure provide for the varying range of interests and talents within each pupil. Individuals are seldom uniform in their capacities and efforts. A particular pupil may be poor in arithmetic and good in drawing, or skilled in games and awkward in discussion. These

internal variations offer challenges to the teacher to utilize the developed capacities and to strengthen the undeveloped ones. Well-adjusted procedures provide the freedom and the opportunity for individual growth.

4. PUPIL CHARACTERISTICS. A good procedure recognizes the interests, capacities, and stages of development of the children. An informal, flexible, and adjustable procedure enables the teacher to appeal to the varying interests of the pupils, to take account of their stages of maturity. In choosing and adapting a procedure the shy, unassimilated pupil, the assured child, and the one without a background of previous experience in a particular unit should all be recognized and included. The rapid changes that occur within children even during a school year emphasize the desirability of adjusting procedures to their growing and developing personalities. The ingredients (see Chapter 5) which are needed for social development can be more easily supplied when the procedure is inclusive and variable.

5. COOPERATION. A good method provides abundant and varied opportunities for developing group skills, cooperative attitudes, and a sharing of common experiences through discussion. Discussion is not merely a method or procedure but a learning process. The pupil who tells his classmates what he has just learned is thereby learning it better. At the same time he is learning the art of communicating, of seeing how others react to what he says. Through committees, teams, and clubs the pupils learn group skills. They learn the value of pooling ideas and of enlisting the wholehearted consent of every member. They perceive that unanimous consent is better than a majority decision. Group actions which follow group decisions tend toward the development of cooperative attitudes. The pupils are thus predisposed to learn from and to contribute to the group. They become cooperative members rather than isolated individuals. All procedures should provide for frequent and extensive practice in varied kinds of cooperation.

6. PRINCIPLES OF LEARNING. A good method affords opportunities to utilize various principles of learning. In the learning process every teacher recognizes the value of repetition, of visual aids, of discussion, of extensive and intensive reading, of writing,

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and of all forms of doing. Hence every procedure should provide liberally for the practice of every known principle of learning. There is ample opportunity for teacher explanations, questions, field trips, and all other kinds of teaching and learning procedures. The teaching procedure must recognize and promote sound learning procedures.

7. PROBLEM SOLVING. A good procedure involves problem solving. Planning a unit, finding material, arranging a field trip, preparing a committee report, and many other classroom activities involve the principles and help to promote the practice of problem solving. The chosen procedure should make it easy for the pupils to choose problems that are meaningful to them, ones which they want to solve. The various steps, such as recognizing and clarifying the issue, gathering information, appraising and verifying data, organizing, interpreting, and evaluating the results, thus appear as a natural, almost inevitable, process. While the teacher recognizes these various steps she need not so label them for all classes. The values of problem solving are too widely recognized to need the support of argument; hence it seems evident that all procedures should be flexible enough to provide experience for the pupils in this basic procedure.

8. CRITICAL THINKING. A good method provides for the growth of critical insight. While it may not be desirable to emphasize critical thinking at all grade levels, its early development is essential. In the light of pupil maturity and the nature of the material, the teacher can develop procedures that afford practice in critical insight. An inconsistency within a book, a discrepancy between a map and a description, a disagreement between sources, and an improbable assertion are raw materials for the development of critical capacities. The arrangement of sources in an order of reliability and the substantiation or refutation of a statement are other examples which provide practice in weighing, comparing, and contrasting conflicting evidence. Since responsible citizenship rests so heavily upon the widespread ability to weigh evidence and decide among competing issues, it seems desirable that the schools give extensive attention to the development of critical thinking.

9. **ATTITUDES.** A good method provides materials and activities that promote the growth of desirable habits, attitudes, and character traits. While the desirable are distinguished from the undesirable attitudes are not always clear, there is a large area of agreement. All are agreed upon the promotion of honesty, respect for property, good citizenship, cooperation, and many other widely accepted values. So in developing a procedure for promoting these values the teacher is in harmony with popular ideals. Attitudes and traits are intangible and do not logically arise from curricular content. In fact, they are more likely than many other values to come directly from method; hence, the teacher who seriously wants to promote the development of habits, traits, and attitudes will see that his procedure is democratic, impartial, consistent, sincere, vivid, appealing, and artistic. The pupil thus learns, not through content, but from example. Method probably plays a greater part in the teaching of these intangible outcomes than it does in the teaching of skills and information.

10. **EVALUATION.** A good procedure provides for frequent and varied evaluation. The pupils as well as the teacher are interested in ascertaining their rate of progress. A discussion, a dramatization, a class project, a committee report, and all other forms of educational activities need evaluation. A method which suspends all appraisal until the lesson has ended or the unit has been completed is an undesirable method. A desirable one provides for constant and repeated inquiries as to how well the class is progressing. Prompt appraisal means the early removal of a deficiency or it may mean the heartening encouragement that comes from knowing that one is on the right road. Since evaluation should be interwoven with all procedures it seems axiomatic that all methods should provide for constant measurement and appraisal.

While incomplete, the ten criteria described above are indicative of the qualities and characteristics which a good method must possess. The account shows that method is a complex blending of numerous elements, such as objectives, pupil characteristics, curricular content, the principles of learning, materials and equipment, and various other factors. Naturally, the

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teacher can and should study methods and foresee many possible uses for them in advance of their application. In practice, however, a teacher does not select a method in advance; she evolves the procedure in the presence of the pupils and applies it to the evolving situation.

PRACTICES — POOR AND GOOD

Perhaps the qualities and importance of method can be emphasized by listing some practices that are quite undesirable and contrasting them with others which are obviously better.¹ These contrasts give further emphasis to the fact that method is the inclusive and functioning process that integrates teaching and learning.

1. <i>Poor</i>	Dominant objective of mastering content
<i>Good</i>	Dominant objective of pupil growth and development
2. <i>Poor</i>	Formal objectives stated in terms of teacher purpose
<i>Good</i>	Objectives derived from discussion and stated in terms of pupil purposes
3. <i>Poor</i>	Teacher stresses deferred values
<i>Good</i>	Emphasis upon current needs
4. <i>Poor</i>	Emphasis solely upon mental development
<i>Good</i>	Emphasis upon social and emotional development
5. <i>Poor</i>	Daily assignments in terms of pages and tasks
<i>Good</i>	Long-range planning. Understood and accepted units, problems, projects, and undertakings by the pupils
6. <i>Poor</i>	Extensive questioning on the assignment
<i>Good</i>	Selective questioning and free discussion
7. <i>Poor</i>	Reports assigned by the teacher
<i>Good</i>	Reports chosen or assumed by pupils and committees
8. <i>Poor</i>	Written or memorized answers
<i>Good</i>	Full discussion and voluntary contributions

¹ For this device I am indebted to Rev. John C. Ward, Assistant Superintendent of Schools of the Archdiocese of St. Paul. The ideas in many of the examples were derived from his study entitled "Three Levels of Teaching the Social Studies."

9. *Poor* Formal review of content
Good Restatement of generalizations and principles
10. *Poor* Teacher condescending, dignified, distant, and formal
Good Teacher natural, friendly, helpful, and democratic
11. *Poor* Formal order and quiet
Good Freedom and informality
12. *Poor* Threats and punishments
Good Encouragement and recognition
13. *Poor* Frequent use of competition
Good Personal motivation and group cooperation
14. *Poor* Decisions made by teacher and pupil leaders
Good Decisions made by all in democratic procedures
15. *Poor* Teacher does the planning
Good Cooperative planning by teachers and pupils
16. *Poor* Activities chosen to promote teacher objectives
Good Activities chosen to meet pupil needs and purposes
17. *Poor* Uniform assignments and standards
Good Individualized undertakings and flexible requirements
18. *Poor* Assumption of uniform pupil growth
Good Recognition of variations in pupil development
19. *Poor* Great dependence upon study guides and workbooks
Good Dependence upon teacher guidance and pupil resourcefulness
20. *Poor* Constant dependence upon the textbook
Good Constant use of varied and numerous materials
21. *Poor* Poverty of external aids
Good Frequent use of visual and auditory aids
22. *Poor* Emphasis solely upon individual achievement
Good Emphasis solely upon the development of group skills and cooperation
23. *Poor* Instruction limited to the classroom
Good Extensive use of community resources
24. *Poor* Routine use of the same methods and procedures
Good Use of varied methods and procedures

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25. <i>Poor</i>	Evaluation in terms of recalled content
<i>Good</i>	Evaluation in terms of progress toward objectives
26. <i>Poor</i>	Evaluation in terms of teacher-derived standard
<i>Good</i>	Evaluation in terms of individual growth
27. <i>Poor</i>	Test results regarded as confidential information
<i>Good</i>	Test results explained and utilized

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17. DEVELOPING READING. AND STUDY SKILLS

READING AND THE SOCIAL STUDIES

The ability to read is closely related to success in the social studies. The range of direct experience is sharply limited. The pupil cannot go to Norway, visit Congress, travel in a prairie schooner, cut wheat on the plains, interview Lincoln, follow the course of the Mississippi, or experience directly any one of a thousand ideas which can contribute to his development. While reading is important in all subjects, it is peculiarly so in the social studies, for an understanding of historical, geographic, civic, and economic realities can scarcely be gained in any other way.

Every part of the school program and every hour of the school day should make their contribution toward the development of reading skills and abilities. The teacher accepts this obligation as truly in the social studies as she does in the periods devoted to formal reading instruction. In the social studies her chief responsibility is to help pupils gain proficiency in reading and studying social materials. Even though they can read in an elementary fashion, it should not be assumed that they will automatically learn new connotations and new concepts, understand maps, graphs, and charts, develop a sense of time and chronology, or be able to make generalizations. Even though they have a particular skill, they must be guided in its application in this field.

Reading is the process of acquiring the author's meaning. This definition includes the "reading" of a map, a cartoon, or a picture, for the makers or creators of these products put *meaning* into them. While reading often results in study and action, it is perhaps better to limit the word to the process of transferring the author's thoughts to the reader's mind. Even with this delimitation reading is a complex process.

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Communication between persons is always imperfect. Words are generalizations, and so they do not convey exact meanings. In conversation a speaker can seldom say precisely what he wants to say, and the hearer, having still different connotations of the words, construes them according to the pattern of his own experience. Thus conversation is an exchange of approximate rather than exact meanings. This situation is further complicated when printed or written symbols are used.

NATURE OF READING

Reading is, first, a process of *learning a language*, and second, a process of *learning through a language*. Both are developed concomitantly, however, and so there is in practice, after the most elementary beginnings, no sharp distinction between the two. At all grade levels pupils read to secure answers to questions and to expand their interests. At the same time they also constantly increase their reading skills. As long as a person reads he can continue both to learn to read better and to acquire more and more information and understanding. This view of reading shows that it is not a mere tool, for its development for significant purposes must be carried out in a significant setting. The pupil who reads what for him is nonsense is not learning to read.

The transition into the second aspect, learning through reading, is gradual. The teacher who can find the materials which the pupil *wants* to know has solved the greatest single problem in reading. When he wants to know about moths, airplanes, the United Nations, or the causes of a strike, he can secure a surprising amount of information from difficult and unattractive sources.

When a reader secures meaning from a page he is learning. It is a process which involves (1) the recall of experience, (2) the recognition of its identity with or similarity to what is on the printed page, (3) the reconstruction of his own experience in line with the pattern laid down by the author, and (4) the recognition of this vicarious experience as new, as an addition that henceforth becomes a part of his own experience.

Reading is not only an intellectual experience; it is an emotional experience as well. Reading produces humor, appreciation, happiness, excitement, ambition, fear, action, even illness, and



PLAY HELPS TO DEVELOP GROUP SKILLS AND PROCEDURES.



TAKING TURNS DEVELOPS GOOD WILL AND FACILITATES HAPPY HUMAN RELATIONSHIPS.



FILMSTRIPS AND PICTURES OF VARIOUS KINDS
HELP TO BUILD ACCURATE AND REALISTIC
UNDERSTANDINGS.



BY THE USE OF RECORDINGS PUPILS BECOME AWARE OF THEIR DEFICIENCIES
IN READING AND SPEAKING

DEVELOPING READING AND STUDY SKILLS

certainly hunger. It promotes the development of personality as well as intellectual growth. The fact that reading is potentially such a determinative experience or habit makes the selecting of what is read a matter of great consequence. While the reader is more important than the author in the teaching of reading, it is well to identify authors by examining their credentials to see if they are worthy of assuming the responsibility of teaching children.

Reading is a cooperative enterprise. Presumably the author has chosen his words so carefully that they constitute the closest approximation of his meaning which can be expressed in language. By means of these symbols he tells a story, writes a description, explains a viewpoint, or argues a cause. For his part, the reader must try to grasp what the author is trying to say, and reconstruct his own experience according to the formula presented by the author. In fact, the author does not really convey information, teach a lesson, or transmit an attitude; he stimulates the reader to grasp the information, accept the lesson, and adopt the attitude. It is the reader who is the active partner. He determines the success of the author.

The pupil of the elementary grades is not conscious of the nature of reading; nor does he need to be, but his teacher can direct and guide him more effectively if she has an appreciation of the inner significance as well as the outward procedures of reading.

PURPOSES AND TYPES OF READING

The director of reading — and directing reading is a function of all social studies teachers — should appreciate the purposes which reading serves. The pupil should not be asked to read for the sake of reading; he should be asked to read because it is a necessary, economical, and pleasant way to achieve some specific purpose. While the following list of purposes is necessarily general, it will help the teacher to see the wide variety of purposes which reading serves in the social studies program.

1. To secure specific information
2. To increase one's store of information
3. To answer a specific question
4. To learn how to make something

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5. To learn how to do something
6. To amuse or entertain
7. To pass the time
8. To prove a statement
9. To verify a statement or idea
10. To keep up with the news
11. To keep up with current ideas
12. To satisfy a request or need
13. To develop an interest or an appreciation
14. To make comparisons
15. To follow directions

Even this short list of purposes contains some overlapping, and not all of them are parallel. They do, however, indicate the most frequent purposes. The teacher would do well to stress 1, 3, 4, 5, 8, and 9, and in the upper grades 10. Number 12 should seldom take the form of a compulsory assignment. Frequent reference to purpose might help to prevent the teacher from making arbitrary reading assignments. If the purpose is uppermost in the mind of the teacher and pupil, the reading will be more meaningful and pleasant.

Not all reading is equally important. It should vary with purpose. Hence it is well to recognize different kinds of reading and help pupils consciously to develop the type best suited to achieve the various purposes. If one is seeking for specific information, for example, one needs to skim rapidly through a section until he discovers the desired materials and then concentrate upon them. Reading for general information and background should be somewhat leisurely. Materials on how to make an airplane must be read with meticulous care.

Reading has been divided into the two types, *silent* and *oral*. Both are necessary and valuable; neither should be neglected. Oral reading requires all the qualities of silent reading, plus the ability to put vigorous and effective tones in the voice and interpretative expressions on the face. Few persons can justly expect to become outstanding oral readers, but everyone should reach a standard of adequacy. The extensive amount of reading that is necessary in social studies emphasizes the desirability of developing skill and speed in silent reading, of varying the type to fit the

DEVELOPING READING AND STUDY SKILLS

purpose and the content. When one wishes to prove a point or share an idea with others, he needs the skills of oral reading.

Reading has also been divided into the two types, *work* and *recreational*. The work type emphasizes reading for vocational, civic, and routine purposes. Recreational reading is motivated in curiosity, the desire to be entertained, or the desire to "escape" in fairy tales, adventure, or detective mysteries. While these two types of reading merge into each other, they are distinguishable. The chief value of these categories is to call attention to the need of varied materials.

Reading may be further divided into such levels as (1) skimming for general ideas, (2) reading for a specific item, (3) reading to note details, and (4) critical, evaluative reading. Each of these levels has its purpose and place. The fourth requires more background and more alertness, but the first is also a very important kind of reading. The teacher should see that each kind of reading is used at the appropriate time.

READING SKILLS

The skills most frequently needed in reading social studies materials are as follows:

READING SKILLS IN THE SOCIAL STUDIES

1. To recognize the denotation of a word
2. To appreciate one or more connotations
3. To formulate an inclusive concept
4. To interpret figurative meanings
5. To understand abstract words
6. To apply general concepts to particular instances
7. To infer the meaning of a word from the context
8. To recognize synonyms in a series
9. To adjust speed to the nature of the materials
10. To recognize discrete meanings in a series
11. To adjust speed to the purpose of reading
12. To select materials relevant to desired information
13. To relate ideas to previously encountered ideas
14. To read rapidly, considering only what is relevant
15. To relate information to a generalization
16. To identify materials relevant to a generalization

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17. To formulate generalizations
18. To recognize major points
19. To subordinate minor points
20. To discard preconceptions and secure the author's meaning
21. To evaluate the reliability of a statement
22. To compare statements
23. To contrast conflicting statements
24. To distinguish fact from opinion
25. To relate effect to cause
26. To know when and how to use the dictionary
27. To read graphs, tables, diagrams, etc.
28. To interpret pictures
29. To use aids to map interpretation
30. To recognize words and topic sentences
31. To sense the structure of what is read
32. To understand implications as well as overt statements
33. To recognize the author's assumptions
34. To understand allusions
35. To transfer ideas from one setting to another
36. To image what is described by the author

While incomplete, the above list does indicate many of the elements of incisive and meaningful reading. It includes some skills and abilities that are closely related to reading; others extend into the realms of studying and interpreting. The purpose of this chapter is to promote the processes of reading and studying. It is sometimes advantageous to carry on both processes simultaneously. The next section contains descriptions of some of these abilities and suggestions as to how they can be developed.

READING ABILITIES

Significant reading in the social studies depends upon the acquisition and use of a number of abilities. The identification of these separate steps will help the teacher to diagnose reading difficulties. Stress on each ability at appropriate times will go far toward enabling the child to become a good reader.

1. **SEEING THE ORGANIZATION.** Very early in a pupil's reading he should sense the structure of the materials. The chapter title and the section and paragraph headings will be more meaningful if the teacher helps him to see how the whole book, chapter, unit, or sec-

tion is organized. Attention to this aspect of reading helps the pupil to do his own organizing. Appreciation of how materials are put together helps in putting them together in the mind of the pupil. The teacher need not insist upon a recognition or recall of the various parts; calling attention to them in connection with reading is the main service which she can render at this point.

2. TYPOGRAPHICAL DEVICES. The author and printer use italics, boldface type, capital letters, indentations, arrangement, and spacing to emphasize words, ideas, and structure. By Grade IV the pupils should begin to recognize these aids. A little help in this direction will make reading more effective.

3. PUNCTUATION MARKS. The pupil should gradually become conscious of punctuation marks and what they signify. The meaning of a period and a question mark can be learned in Grades I and II. The comma, semicolon, colon, dash, and hyphen are more difficult, but no one can read very significant materials without learning the principal uses of these marks. The teacher can explain each of them as the need arises.

4. UTILIZING CONNECTIVES. The pupils of Grade II can appreciate the meaning and use of *and* and *but*, and *first*, *second*, etc. Other connective and transitional words, such as *next*, *then*, *therefore*, *however*, *consequently*, *hence*, *e.g.*, *i.e.*, *in fact*, *on the other hand*, and *after all* are more advanced. The considerate author who writes for pupils of the elementary grades will not use such confusing words as *the former* and *the latter*, *notwithstanding*, *whatsoever*, *nevertheless*, *successive*, and foreign words and phrases. As the pupil advances from grade to grade he can also make progress in utilizing connective and transitional devices.

5. FOLLOWING DIRECTIONS. The pupil has frequent occasion to read instructions on how to play a game, set a table, greet a visitor, construct a toy, read a map, and make a diagram. If the material has meaning for him and if he is eager to carry out instructions he will read with care. The teacher can furnish guidance by showing how important every step is. Beyond school this same type of reading is frequent. Labels on goods, directions for assembling a machine, using a tool, taking medicine, and recipes for cooking are examples.

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6. **FINDING ANSWERS.** Reading to find the answer to a question is frequent. How to plant a garden, make a tepee, cut paper dolls, and carry out other kinds of activities requires purposive reading. In teaching pupils how to find answers, the teacher should demonstrate how to select the specific sentences which answer questions in civics, geography, and history, and how some questions involve the summarizing of a whole paragraph or section. This is a process which the teacher should demonstrate repeatedly.

7. **IMAGINATIVE READING.** The pupil who learns to follow the author faithfully and enthusiastically will get the most from his reading. The pupil who "feels" the hot winds of the desert, "sees" the glare of the sun, "trembles" with apprehension in the face of danger, "glows" with pleasure over an heroic feat, and "grieves" over the misfortunes of the characters is having a rich experience. He "sees" colors, "hears" sounds, and "feels" all that the characters feel. By interpretative reading the teacher can demonstrate the variety and intensity which an alert reader should experience.

8. **CRITICAL READING.** Pupils in the primary grades understand degrees of probability; they weigh the reliability of different statements. How do you know? Who says it? How does he know? These are frequent questions, and pupils show a surprising degree of discrimination in appraising the answers. They can often tell which is the best type of evidence among such statements as follows: "My father said . . ." "A man told me . . ." "I read it in a book." "I saw it in the paper." "I saw it myself." "The encyclopedia says . . ." The teacher does well to cultivate a cautious but not suspicious attitude in the pupils. They will then read with more care and more interest.

9. **SELECTING THE SIGNIFICANT.** The ability to find specific answers, follow directions, and other simpler abilities in reading should gradually develop into a capacity to select the significant ideas, the key points, the gist, the principal thoughts. Teachers can help pupils to recognize the significance of topic sentences and summary or concluding remarks. This ability largely determines how well the pupil can read social studies materials, for it is a necessary skill even in reading narratives.

10. FACTS AND OPINIONS. Social studies materials are filled with objective statements of facts, but they also contain many interpretative passages. Writers seldom differentiate sharply between facts and opinions, but readers need to make the distinction. To say that "Mexico contains about twenty million people" is a statement that is approximately correct; it is a *fact*. To say that "Mexico is the most picturesque land in the world" is an *opinion*. The making of such distinctions will guard pupils against errors and free them from docile acceptance of all that they read.

11. BUILDING VOCABULARY. The teacher should see that reading results in the growth of concepts. Some pupils become adept at recognizing the appearance and sound of a word without understanding its meaning. While the general idea of a word can often be deduced from the context it is unsafe to assume that this practice is reliable. Pupils should be encouraged to cultivate the habit of acquiring additional words, with both their denotations and at least some of their connotations.

READING DIFFICULTIES IN SOCIAL STUDIES

It has long been recognized that a large percent of pupils cannot profitably read many of the materials in current use in the social studies. Reading difficulties should be divided into two aspects: (1) the limitations and deficiencies of the reader and (2) the difficulties of the materials.

1. Some of the difficulties attributed to reading materials are in reality *language* difficulties of the reader. Pupils often fail to comprehend a passage even when it is read to them. Up to about Grade V, *hearing* comprehension is somewhat better than *reading* comprehension. Above that level reading comprehension improves and soon surpasses hearing comprehension.

Reading ability is closely related to interest. The boy who wants to know how to construct a toy or classify a stamp will read materials which are considered too difficult for him. Interest seems to overcome many of the difficulties of diction and structure.

Reading ability is closely related to experience. Materials that deal with camping, playing games, fighting (experienced vicariously through films and comics), animal life, and airplanes are

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easier to read than those that deal with laws, treaties, areas, products, and institutions. The child reared on the plains has difficulty in appreciating stories of the sea. Much of the content of the social studies reading materials is neither concrete nor familiar.

Reading ability is correlated positively, but not highly, with intelligence. The pupil of average ability whose interest is aroused can read materials of a complicated nature, especially if they deal with some areas of his experience. In general, however, the more intelligent pupils are the best readers.

Thus the improvement of reading ability involves attention to the reader as well as to the materials. Arousing interests, attention to specialized words, enlarging the vocabulary, and providing opportunities for the expansion of experience are obviously necessary steps. Attention to the reader should probably precede attention to the materials.

2. The causes of reading difficulties that arise from the materials have been extensively and repeatedly studied and some fairly reliable conclusions can be drawn. For years it was assumed that *vocabulary* was the key to difficulty in reading. Thorndike's research popularized this idea and his word books, showing frequency, and assumed simplicity, were widely utilized. Several specialized vocabularies were compiled in the social studies field and in civics, geography, and American and European history. Authors of textbooks and of readers faithfully restricted their diction to these minimum lists. This movement unquestionably resulted in some improvements. The fact that the problem is still present, however, shows that diction was only a part of the difficulty.

Proof that vocabulary is not the only reading difficulty of the materials is conclusive. Each of the following sentences is composed wholly of words that appear in the first 1000 of Thorndike and Lorge's list.

1. Something was in the wind, but I was kept in the dark.
2. Public power plants mean less money for businessmen.
3. He held his peace when honor demanded that he face the issue.
4. To discover truth may be to destroy hope.
5. The teacher was a master of music and method.

6. Public opinion is the power behind national movements.
7. The doctor's life experiences made him a character of note.

Some of the above statements are difficult because of the complexity of the ideas. Obviously the difficulties in the sentences cannot be removed by the substitution of simpler words, for the words are among the easiest in our language.

The removal of difficulties in social studies materials by using simpler words is occasionally helpful. As a wholesale procedure however, it is open to three objections. First, the difficulty is often in the ideas and not in the vocabulary. Second, such rewritings inevitably change the color, tone, or meaning of the passage and so destroy the distinctions which the author tries to make. Third, restricting the vocabulary raises a barrier to the acquisition of the very means that could overcome the barrier. Vocabulary building may be as important as securing the meaning of a particular passage or book.

Other causes of reading difficulties have been identified — sentence length, sentence structure, figurative language, diffuseness of expression, failure of the author to differentiate between what is important and what is ancillary, abstractness of style, lack of supporting details, and overuse of specialized words. An awareness of these difficulties on the part of some authors has led to considerable improvement. In some instances, however, the teacher may have to rewrite or simplify certain passages that are regarded as fundamental.

Perhaps a few suggestions of possible steps for the improvement of reading will be helpful.

1. Recognize and accept variability of reading abilities.
2. Provide a plentiful and varied assortment of reading materials, pictures, films, models, and specimens.
3. Plan systematically for the study of specialized concepts.
4. Plan for the enlargement of experience through field trips, projects, and activities.
5. Provide for the reading of extensive but easy materials.
6. Arouse interest by skillful planning.
7. Require frequent reading aloud as a check upon the accuracy of comprehension.
8. Develop better reading through skillful questions.

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9. Avoid time limitations and specified number of readings.
10. Simplify occasional passages and provide guiding exercises.

An example of simplified materials for a small group of poor readers in Grade IV is as follows:¹

A LOW LAND BY THE SEA

The name, Netherlands, means "lowlands." All of the land in the Netherlands is low. Water from the sea would cover the land if the people had not learned a way of keeping out the sea.

The Dutch people have learned good ways of keeping the water away from the cities and farms. At many places along the coast are small sandy hills. These sandy hills are called sand "dunes." In some places the Dutch have built "dikes."

A dike is a very high wall. The wall is wide too. The dike is so wide that cars can use the top for a road. The dike keeps back the sea.

For many years the Dutch could not get the water from their land. At last someone thought of the windmill. The wind turns the big arms of the windmills. The windmills pump the water from the land and run it into the sea. The windmill helps to keep the land dry.

1. What do the Dutch call a small sandy hill? _____
2. What is the wall called that keeps out the sea? _____
3. What helps to keep the lowland dry? _____
4. What word means "lowlands"? _____

STUDY SKILLS

Reading and study involve the finding of a great variety of sources and skill in using them. In the social studies the study skills may be divided into five groups, which really constitute steps in study and learning. In the following list each of the five main steps is subdivided into a number of illustrative substeps or special skills.

¹ The teacher, Mrs. Lois Lance, Tuttle School, Minneapolis, furnished me with copies of a set of ten simplified readings on the Netherlands. The specimen is used with her permission.

DEVELOPING READING AND STUDY SKILLS

I. LOCATING INFORMATION

1. Library catalogue
2. *Readers' Guide*
3. Yearbooks, such as *World Almanac*
4. Encyclopedias
5. Dictionary
6. Bound periodicals
7. Guides, timetables, folders
8. Newspaper files
9. Digests and reviews
10. Atlases
11. Maps
12. Bibliographies, separate and in books
13. Pictures, still and motion
14. Records and recordings
15. Collections of clippings
16. Telephone directories
17. Government directories, local, state, and national
18. Models and specimens
19. Series and sets in the social studies

II. TECHNIQUES OF USING MATERIALS

1. Significance of title page
2. How to use a table of contents
3. Using lists of illustrations
4. Significance of preface
5. Use of learning aids
6. Using an index
7. Using dictionaries
8. Using encyclopedias
9. How to use maps

10. How to interpret graphs
11. Reading charts and tables
12. How to read a picture

III. PROCESS OF STUDYING

MATERIALS

1. Reading for various purposes
2. Learning new words
3. Recognizing abbreviations and symbols
4. Taking notes
5. Outlining, summarizing
6. Transferring data from maps
7. Identifying main points
8. Shifting viewpoints
9. Analysis of contradictions
10. Standing of publisher
11. Recency of materials

IV. APPRAISING MATERIALS

1. Distinguishing sources and secondary accounts
2. Reliability of the author
3. Serious and popular treatments
4. Accuracy of the account
5. Separating facts and opinions
6. Adequacy of proof
7. Tentative nature of conclusions

V. UTILIZING RESULTS

1. Preparing reports
2. Clearing up problems

METHODS AND PROCEDURES

- 3. Organizing events in sequence
- 4. Organizing results
- 5. Drawing conclusions
- 6. Making deductions
- 7. Making generalizations
- 8. Setting up periods, classes, groups
- 9. Establishing causal relationships

1. LOCATING INFORMATION. The need for knowing how to locate information is obvious. The teacher can do much to see that pupils learn many, and not just a few, sources. The teacher should demonstrate how to use the library catalogue, *Readers' Guide*, and a collection of clippings. The pupils should see and handle as many as possible of the various kinds of sources listed above. An awareness of the mere existence of these various types of materials is clear gain. Their use constitutes the next step.

2. TECHNIQUES OF USING MATERIALS. Every child receives instructions in how to handle a toy or a tool. Yet some teachers fail to show pupils how to handle the very intricate and involved product known as a book. The proper use of materials requires the mastery of such aids as preface, table of contents, indexes, maps, etc. The teacher should not only demonstrate how to use each aid; she should convince pupils of the value of knowing how to examine materials expeditiously. Practice, continued and repeated even to the point of weariness for the teacher, is the price of pupil competence in the use of these aids. The number of adults who leaf through a book to find a passage, forgetting the existence of an index, is obvious proof that teachers in the past did not convince students of the value of indexes. The teacher can make games of these drills; she can make tests on each skill; and she can see that her pupils know the techniques of the effective use of social studies materials. Several good tests (see Bibliography at end of Chapter 24) on study skills are available, but they serve as measures of achievement; they should not replace teacher-devised drills and games.

3. PROCESS OF STUDYING MATERIALS. After finding the materials and learning the techniques of approach, the third step is the process of studying. This third step resembles careful reading, but it goes beyond reading to include the products of thinking and learning. It involves understanding the materials, recogniz-

ing main points, finding key sentences, selecting supporting ideas, rejecting irrelevant points, arranging materials, intelligent outlining, taking careful and intelligible notes, and relating the studying to the purpose for which it is done. In this process the teacher will do well to construct reading tests based upon typical paragraphs. The tests will not only show her how well the pupils are reading; they will also show them their weaknesses and motivate them to more significant reading.

4. APPRAISING MATERIALS. This step is parallel to the preceding one and involves the weighing of the quality and value of what is read. The pupil becomes conscious of the author, his status and reliability. He wants to know how the author knows. He questions; he notes inconsistencies; he checks and verifies; in brief, he becomes a critical appraiser of what he reads. After studying the materials and after being convinced of their reliability, he is ready for the fifth and final step.

5. UTILIZING THE RESULTS. In the final stage of reading and studying the pupil measures his results in the light of his purpose. He is now ready to answer a question, give the required evidence, verify what he says, refute his opponent, make his report, present his map, complete his graph, take his part in the play, or carry out any one of the dozens of purposes which started him on his search.

Thus the pupil has taken the five steps: (1) located his information, (2) learned the techniques of using it, (3) studied the materials, (4) appraised their merits, and (5) by using the results he has achieved his purpose.

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18. DEVELOPING CONCEPTS AND GENERALIZATIONS

IMPORTANCE OF CONCEPTS

It is difficult in a civilized society to exaggerate the importance of concepts and the words through which they are conveyed. Words are the identification labels for objects, experiences, and ideas; they are the vehicles of communication; they are the raw materials for thinking; they are the indexes of intelligence.

The child who has not been to a particular place, seen a particular object, had a particular experience, or developed a particular attitude is excused and excusable. But if he has failed to learn a particular word, he is regarded as handicapped and untrained. The reasons for this exacting standard are clear. American society demands that he know such concepts as *democracy*, *cooperation*, *free speech*, *religious toleration*, *liberty*, and dozens of other key concepts. These social pressures are irresistible, and the schools supply teachers, dictionaries, and libraries. Hence, the pupil who fails to acquire the common social vocabulary is regarded — and perhaps justly — as deficient or defective.

Each field and subject has need of concepts which differ from those of other fields and subjects: hence the need of large numbers of specialized vocabularies. In view of these diverse meanings, both denotative and connotative, it would be absurd to claim that every word in the English language indicates a social concept. Assuming then that social concepts constitute only one class or group of words, one naturally asks what are some of the other kinds. Without trying to answer the question definitively one might say that words could be divided into *scientific*, *quantitative*, *linguistic*, *designative*, and *social*. Thus social concepts

are properly conceived as only one of several large groups of words.

In the social realm words take on an added significance. They indicate the individual's relation to and status within the group. There are languages of signs and gestures, of numbers, of music, and to some extent of the emotions. But when full allowance is made for all these ways of communicating, the fact remains that the verbal method of communicating is socially more important than all other methods; without it society as an institution could not exist. Hence skill in teaching words becomes of paramount importance in education.

NATURE OF SOCIAL CONCEPTS

The vocabulary of science is relatively definite and easy. The words apply for the most part to *things*. The senses can apprehend the objects and associate them with the proper words. In mathematics the process is similar. The concepts are mostly numbers, which may or may not be identified with objects. Likewise a vocabulary of primary reading can readily be related to concrete experiences in such a way that the words acquire meaning. In contrast to these relatively definite fields stands the vocabulary of social relationships. Social concepts are less tangible; the standard is less definite; and the concept may be based upon an unusual experience which forever colors the word, making its later expansion more difficult.

Social concepts are those which denote relationships. A relationship is naturally more difficult and less tangible than an object, a person, or a mechanical process. Most of the social concepts refer to relationships among individuals or groups, but many also refer to relationships between people and their environment. Large numbers of the common social concepts are abstract words, like *friendship*, *order*, *loyalty*, and *truth*. Another large group refers to status within an organization. Such words as *leader*, *principal*, *officer*, and *farmer* indicate status. Still others, such as *salute*, *prompt*, *courtesy*, and *independence* designate qualities or aspects of behavior. Other groups indicate physical environment, interdependence, time, health, and dozens of other bases of human relationships.

SOCIAL CONCEPTS IDENTIFIED

Within recent years many writers have emphasized social concepts, but few have been at any pains to identify or define what they mean. Two extremes are prominent. The first, and more numerous, group that talks about social concepts means interdependence, adjustment, adaptation, cooperation, change, conflict, control over nature, democracy, invention, institutions, and other inclusive and quite intangible concepts. These are obviously adult categories, the classifications of educators, and not social concepts for children. For example, Rinsland (see Bibliography), whose list includes 14,571 words, does not even list *interdependence* and *adaptation*; the word *adjustment* does not appear until Grade VI and then only 47 times in 6,012,359 running words; *democracy* appears 17 times; *institution* 14 times; and *conflict* only 8 times. In Thorndike and Lorge (see Bibliography) *interdependence* occurs once in a million running words, *adjustment* 13 times, and *adaptation* 6 times. Thus it is clear that these words, or at least some of them, are rather difficult. As ideas, objectives, or principles for selecting significant words they are probably good indicators, but easier and simpler ones should be used in teaching children.

The other group that discusses social concepts uses the term as an inclusive label for all kinds of words, meanings, and connotations, both within and beyond the social studies field. Such writers refer to objects in science and inanimate things in nature as social concepts. This is an absurdity. If there is a field of the social studies and if it has a vocabulary, it should be possible to identify some of its concepts which are useful in teaching children. Thus it seems desirable at least to identify, if not to define, concepts in the social studies.

The word *concept* has been identified as a word, a connotation, a meaning, a generalization, a cluster of ideas, or as the significant associations which group themselves around some central core. In dealing with concepts for elementary pupils, it seems sufficient to identify them as *words*. Naturally, the teacher makes efforts to see that the word is significant and that as many levels of its meaning as possible are taught. Thus the word *school* may mean

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a building, a group of teachers, a routinized procedure, a place for children, a place for learning, a tax-supported institution, a broad social institution, the agency for passing on the social heritage, or an agency for increasing and preserving civilization. Most words have a hierarchy of meanings according to somewhat similar patterns. How far up the scale one can go depends upon the word, the pupil, and the occasion. But each word in its simplest sense is the basis for building a well-rounded and significant concept. So for practical purposes, let us identify words and concepts as synonymous. Having understood and established a viewpoint on concepts, one can narrow the range and concentrate on social studies concepts.

What are social studies concepts? They can be *identified* as those which point directly toward human relationships. They group themselves into the following classes:

MAJOR CLASSES OF SOCIAL CONCEPTS

1. Action	(serve, entertain, thinking, reveal)
2. Agency	(company, mediator, clerk, ticket)
3. Behavior	(worship, lawless, beg, lying)
4. Change	(new, develop, larger, improved)
5. Communication	(publish, newspaper, poem, speak)
6. Custom	(holiday, bow, game, title)
7. Entity	(gift, man, flag, system)
8. Group	(class, army, board, team)
9. Ideal	(truth, respect, order, happiness)
10. Institution	(university, marriage, religion, government)
11. Instrument	(street, barn, strike, sword)
12. Invention	(legislature, constitution, discovery, irrigation)
13. Obligation	(obey, taxes, debt, renew)
14. Place	(island, beyond, China, far)
15. Process	(voting, impeachment, packing, recreation)
16. Profession	(doctor, worker, secretary, teacher)
17. Quality	(loyalty, respect, pure, kindly)
18. Relationship	(husband, cousin, captain, owner)
19. Situation	(prisoner, opportunity, blind, witness)
20. Status	(poor, fortunate, private, health)
21. Time	(long, century, quickly, whenever)

While the above categories do not cover the entire range of social concepts, they do provide systematic classifications for most

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of them. The categories are not entirely discrete. For example, the word *voting* under number 15 can be regarded as a "process" but it could also be classified under number 12 as an "invention." The word *new* under number 4 could also be regarded as a "time" (number 21) concept. Number 11, "instrument," is the category most likely to be overcrowded. Pressed to its logical limits almost every word in the dictionary could be alleged to serve a social purpose and therefore be regarded as a social instrument. Logic should not be used to such limits.

The purpose of these categories is to enable the teacher to identify social concepts and to reject those which do not qualify. For example the word *file* is the name of a tool. It could be regarded as a social agency or as a social instrument. A more critical standard, however, would lead to its rejection as a social concept. It does not deal directly with human relations. As a positive example, consider the word *travel*. It can be regarded as a social "action" (number 1) or as a "process" (number 15). Thus the use of these classifications should enable the social studies teacher to identify the vocabulary of his field.

This analysis constitutes a very definite criterion for identifying social concepts. As a definite and specific guide to the teacher an analysis was made of the first 2000 words in the Thorndike and Lorge lists. The following lists contain only social studies concepts as defined by the preceding analysis. In using the list one should remember, however, that some words do double or triple duty. The words *milk*, *farm*, and *believe*, for example, can be and are used in fields other than the social studies.

SOCIAL STUDIES CONCEPTS

(Derived from Thorndike and Lorge)

1-500	business	cost	family	girl
act	case	country	father	good
alone	cause	court	fear	government
American	change	dear	feel	great
army	child	demand	felt	head
bank	children	die	fight	help
believe	city	doctor	fine	home
book	company	dollar	force	hope
boy	condition	fact	friend	human

SOCIAL STUDIES CONCEPTS

(Derived from Thorndike and Lorge)

husband	place	we	college	grew
idea	plan	wife	command	group
important	play	woman	common	grow
interest	poor	women	control	guard
just	power	word	crowd	guide
king	present	work	dance	health
labor	president	world	dare	history
lady	price	write	daughter	honor
laugh	produce	wrong	dead	Indian
law	public		deal	industry
learn	read	501-1000	death	issue
letter	right	accept	declare	job
life	river	account	destroy	join
like	road	advance	discover	judge
line	school	affair	drive	kill
live	serve	afraid	due	kiss
lost	ship	agree	duty	knight
love	show	animal	enemy	known
man	side	art	English	lead
marry	sir	article	escape	led
mean	smile	baby	experience	listen
men	son	bad	explain	lord
Miss	speak	barn	express	lose
money	state	beauty	fail	loss
mother	street	belong	fair	manner
Mr.	supply	boat	famous	march
Mrs.	system	bottle	farm	market
name	talk	British	farmer	master
national	tell	brother	fellow	meet
need	think	buy	foreign	meeting
note	thought	captain	form	member
office	time	cent	free	met
order	together	character	French	method
own	told	charge	gain	milk
paper	town	chief	game	mine
party	wait	church	gather	movement
pay	want	class	general	music
people	war	clothes	gentleman	nation
person	way	club	German	neighbor

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SOCIAL STUDIES CONCEPTS

(Derived from Thorndike and Lorge)

news	song	appeal	chain	defeat
notice	spend	appearance	chapter	defend
officer	spoke	apply	cheap	defense
opinion	St.	appoint	choose	delay
ought	stock	arose	chose	deliver
paid	store	arrange	chosen	democratic
peace	subject	artist	Christian	deny
position	success	association	Christmas	depend
post	teach	assure	clerk	determine
press	thank	attitude	clothing	develop
prince	tie	aunt	coin	development
problem	trade	author	collect	devote
promise	train	authority	colonel	diamond
purpose	travel	automobile	colony	discovery
queen	trip	average	commerce	division
race	trust	band	commission	duke
ready	truth	bar	committee	Dutch
record	uncle	beg	community	economic
report	understand	bell	companion	editor
rich	value	benefit	compel	education
rise	village	bid	concern	effect
rose	visit	birth	conclude	elect
rule	worth	blame	conduct	empire
sail		bless	congress	employ
save	1001-2000	blind	consent	engage
seat	accompany	bond	contract	equal
seek	accomplish	border	convention	establish
sell	activity	bought	conversation	event
send	admire	bound	corn	everybody
service	adopt	bow	correct	evidence
settle	advantage	brave	courage	evil
shop	adventure	bread	cousin	examine
shore	advice	cabin	create	exchange
shot	afford	card	credit	exclaim
sign	alarm	careful	crime	excuse
sing	alive	carefully	crown	exist
sister	anger	cast	custom	expense
sold	angry	castle	debt	expression
soldier	announce	cattle	deed	extend

SOCIAL STUDIES CONCEPTS
(Derived from Thorndike and Lorge)

factory	household	manage	pen	progress
fairly	hung	manufacture	per	property
false	hungry	map	per cent	propose
fame	importance	marriage	perfect	protect
fare	improve	married	perform	protest
fate	independent	memory	permit	proud
fault	indicate	merchant	pity	publish
feeling	individual	merry	plane	pupil
firm	influence	message	poem	purchase
flag	inform	mighty	poet	pure
fleet	information	military	police	quality
flew	inquire	mill	policy	quantity
flight	insist	minister	political	quarrel
fortune	introduce	moral	popular	quiet
freedom	invite	motion	population	quietly
friendly	Italian	murder	possess	rail
friendship	judgment	net	possession	railway
fun	justice	noble	powder	rank
funny	justify	nobody	powerful	reader
gift	kindly	nod	praise	rear
glory	kingdom	nurse	pray	recall
governor	lad	obey	prayer	recognize
grace	Latin	observe	prefer	recover
gram	leading	occasion	preserve	reduce
Greek	league	occupy	prevent	relation
greet	lesson	official	pride	relief
growth	library	operation	principal	religion
guest	list	opportunity	principle	religious
gun	locate	oppose	print	remark
handsome	lovely	opposite	prison	render
happiness	lover	organization	prisoner	repeat
hate	lying	ourselves	private	represent
herald	machinery	owe	prize	representative
hero	mad	owner	proceed	Republican
hire	magazine	palace	process	request
holy	maid	parent	product	reserve
honest	main	passenger	production	respect
hospital	major	passion	professor	reveal
hotel	majority	patient	profit	revolution

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SOCIAL STUDIES CONCEPTS

(Derived from Thorndike and Lorge)

rode	servant	stir	thinking	vain
Roman	settlement	stranger	threaten	vast
route	shame	struck	ticket	vessel
royal	sheep	struggle	tip	victory
Russian	shelter	student	title	virtue
sacrifice	shoot	style	tone	volume
safety	shown	succeed	tongue	wage
sailor	shut	successful	total	wagon
saint	sigh	sufficient	tower	warn
sake	silent	sum	trace	weak
salary	silk	superior	track	wealth
sale	slave	surround	trail	welcome
sand	slow	sword	training	we'll
satisfy	slowly	tale	traveler	wheat
saving	smart	taught	treasure	whisper
science	sorry	tax	treat	whistle
score	sought	tea	treaty	willing
search	Spanish	team	trial	wine
secret	spent	telephone	tribe	wire
secretary	spite	temperature	trick	wit
section	sport	temple	troop	witness
secure	stage	tend	understanding	won
seize	stamp	tender	understood	wool
select	standard	tent	uniform	worker
self	stare	term	unite	worry
senate	statement	terrible	university	worship
senator	steady	test	unknown	worthy
separate	steal	theater	urge	writer
series	steam	theory	utter	yield
serious	steel			

Some interesting interpretations emerge from a critical examination of the above list. Out of the first five hundred words in the Thorndike and Lorge list 131 are here classified as *social*. To these should be added the 40 time concepts and 21 geographic and locational words listed below, making a total of 192 social concepts in the first five hundred. In view of the intangible and involved nature of social concepts, this is rather a large percentage

to find among the easiest words in the language. In the second five hundred in Thorndike and Lorge the number is still greater; 168 general, 16 time, and 63 geographic and locational, making a total of 247 social concepts in the second five hundred. In the second *thousand* words in Thorndike and Lorge there are 420 general, 31 time, and 37 geographic and locational concepts, making a total of 488. The percentages of social concepts of the total words are as follows: in the first five hundred 38.4 per cent; second five hundred 49.5 per cent; in the second *thousand* 48.8 per cent. Thus it appears that social concepts are fewer in the easiest words and that their percentage becomes larger and possibly somewhat constant as the words increase in difficulty.

DEVELOPING SOCIAL CONCEPTS

In developing social concepts the teacher should keep three principles clearly in view. (1) The word should be an identification of experience. There is no use to try to develop the word *system*, for example, unless the pupil has some basic experience which the word identifies. (2) The word should always be *used* before being defined or explained. The concept must be used in context, before singling it out for attention and study. (3) Each word should be developed in ascending levels of difficulty or widening areas of inclusiveness. If these general principles are followed, the pupil will have little difficulty in building rich and meaningful concepts.

Recognition of these three steps should lead to no formalism in their application. Concepts are seldom acquired by hearing a definition or by using the dictionary. Experience provides the best context for learning words; hence the pupils who engage in activities, make field trips, construct objects and symbols, collect specimens, draw pictures, and dramatize their ideas will inevitably acquire vocabularies that identify the various elements in their experiences. After the initial introduction to a word through experience the pupils are perhaps ready for definitions and other connotations. Even adults recognize the curious paradox that one does not usually understand the definition of a word until he has need of it and unless he already has some idea as to its meaning.

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While no specific formula for studying the expansion of a word can be formulated, a few illustrations may be helpful and suggestive. The word *law*, for example, means rules prescribed by a state legislature or by Congress; the codes enacted by city councils; a formula pertaining to a natural force, such as gravity, which acts with unvarying regularity; the principles and standards which society approves and accepts; central tendencies or approximate truths, such as a *law* in economics or sociology. While these five aspects of the word *law* may not be in the ascending order of difficulty, it is clear that the first aspect is far easier to grasp than the last one.

Expanding aspects of four other words will further clarify the principle. *Gentleman*, (1) a man, (2) a well-dressed man of good appearance, (3) one who acts in an honorable and upright manner, (4) one who does a special favor or meets a peculiarly hard test of quality, (5) a man of leisure who does nothing for society. *Class*, (1) a group of pupils, (2) persons who meet a certain standard of quality, (3) an economic or financial level, (4) a political level, such as rulers or subjects. *March*, (1) the movement of persons in a group, (2) the systematic movement of troops, (3) the progressive sequence of events, (4) a drive or movement toward some public purpose. *Master*, (1) an owner of slaves, (2) a leader, (3) a skilled artisan or worker, (4) a worker or craftsman who has achieved status or rank because of superior skill, (5) a ruler over a group or area, (6) one who is supremely triumphant over others, (7) one who triumphs over fate and destiny.

Some words do not lend themselves readily to ascending degrees of complexity. Such words as *purchase*, *royal*, *secretary* gain significance by repetition and application to varied instances of the act, quality, or office rather than by thinking of them as having a scaled rise of difficulty. This principle, however, is not sharply different. It merely emphasizes the fact that rich and inclusive concepts are built up gradually. The teacher should not at any one time try to deal with all aspects or connotations of a word. In fact, the observation of the first principle stated above (basic experience) will prevent any attempt to exhaust a word during one class period or in connection with one use of it.

In connection with the teaching of concepts in the middle grades the teacher should introduce the dictionary and train pupils to use it. While the dictionary is not a substitute for experience, it is of great help after the pupil has come across a word. The dictionaries which are best suited for pupils give phrases or sentences in which the words appear, thus deepening their understanding of the concept.

Some teachers think that *writing*, *spelling*, and *repeating* a new word are further guarantees that it will be learned. Thus the hand, eye, ear, and tongue contribute to sharpening and retaining the new concept. In the final study of a unit or a clearly marked subdivision it is well to list the significant words which have been studied. They can be pleasantly and profitably reviewed in games and drills. Certainly they should appear in final tests.

The teaching of a concept should never be mechanical. The process of learning it is gradual and prolonged, and the thoughtful teacher will not impatiently rush pupils into mechanical drills, rote repetitions, or verbal rehearsals. The acquisition of a new word is a milestone on the march toward social understanding. The pupil should build his vocabulary in an unhurried atmosphere, free from the pressure of learning any stated number of words per week or month. The teaching of concepts, like the teaching of all significant materials, requires time and skill.

TIME AND CHRONOLOGY

A conception of time as distinguished from chronology develops at an early age. Within the first five hundred words of the Thorndike and Lorge list there are 40 words having a time basis or connotation. In the second five hundred the number is only 16, and in the second thousand 29. As can be noted below, the first thousand contain *moment*, *hour*, *day*, *week*, *month*, *season*, *year*, and *century*, and *past*, *future*, and *date*. Thus the pupil within the first two grades is presumably equipped with the principal words in building up a sense of time and chronology.

For teaching purposes, however, a rather sharp distinction should be made between *time* and *chronology*. The young child and the pupils of the primary grades soon learn comparative time

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by such words as *first*, *now*, *late*, *night*, *summer*, and *tomorrow*. They become aware of clocks, calendars, appointments, and obligations. But prior to Grade VI they have almost no sense of chronology, i.e., the arrangement of events in sequence.

Every study of time, and there have been several within recent years, shows that pupils of the early grades simply cannot grasp dates. Decades and centuries and the sequence of periods and movements are beyond their experience. When it is desirable to teach a pupil something beyond his experience, the good teacher first provides a basis in a field trip, an activity, or a project. But the teacher cannot provide experiences involving time; only the calendar and slow maturation can do that. Hence it is far more profitable to teach simple *time relationships* in the early grades and let *chronology* wait until the pupil has experienced a few more years. An analysis of the nature of time will make the soundness of this conclusion more evident.

TIME CONCEPTS

(Derived from Thorndike and Lorge)

I-500	moment	while	till	June
after	month	year	tomorrow	March
again	morning	yet	winter	May
age	never			midnight
ago	new	501-1000	1001-2000	noon
already	next	afternoon	ancient	November
always	night	century	April	o'clock
before	now	date	August	October
day	old	future	current	presently
during	once	minute	dawn	recent
early	present	modern	December	recently
evening	second	past	February	Saturday
ever	since	quickly	forever	seldom
fall	soon	season	immediate	September
first	then	sometimes	immediately	Sunday
hour	today	spring	instant	tonight
last	until	sudden	January	whenever
late	week	summer	July	yesterday
long	when			

BASES OF TIME

The evolution of the concept of time goes through three stages: (1) the associative or comparative stage, (2) the spatial stage, and (3) the mathematical stage.

The associative stage is the one in which the concept of comparison is uppermost. The child plays *while* his mother prepares lunch; he starts to school *when* the bell rings; it is 1952 *when* he writes a letter; Washington cut down a cherry tree *when* he was a boy. The pupil learns 1492, 1607, 1776, and 1914, but he learns them as mere nonsensical numbers arbitrarily associated with events. The events may be significant but the dates become so only after long and repeated exposure to them. The associative method can finally result in a sense of chronology, but it will always entail effort; the person who uses this method only will always regard dates as a kind of assignment, as an artificial connection. The method has no logic, no system; it erects no categories and so is subordinate to the event with which it is associated.

Some persons conceive of time as having a spatial basis. A week is a row of seven days across the face of a calendar; an hour is the space covered by the long hand of a clock or watch; it will be *time* to go to bed as soon as he can cover the *distance* back home; the height of the sun above the horizon indicates how much time is left to play. The familiar time line is an attempt to clarify time by reducing it to space. For example, a time line of American history from 1492 to the present shows that we are nearer the French and Indian War than Columbus was. For some pupils the time line remains a *distance* line, for he fails to translate the distance into time.

The person who conceives time in mathematical terms senses a date as a *quantity*. Having some mental imagery for numbers, he merely translates the *quantity* or *number*, one thousand six hundred and seven (1607), for example, into a *date*. This scheme is systematic; it is sequential; it provides categories; it facilitates associations, causal connections, and interpretations. It is doubtful if one can build up a very clear or significant sense of chronology without a pattern which has a mathematical basis. While some persons insist that street numbers, dates, and telephone

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numbers are conceived in different patterns and none of them quantitatively, it is probable that all of them are subconsciously based upon mathematics.

TEACHING TIME AND CHRONOLOGY

Some suggestions on teaching time and chronology may be of value.

1. Follow the suggestions given above concerning the teaching of concepts and apply them to the vocabulary of time. In the upper grades such words as *decade*, *annual*, and *fortnight* may well be added to the list.
2. Develop a sense of the time of a generation. This can be done in a striking manner. Ask each member of the class to find out in what year his father was born. From this date subtract the birth year of the pupil. When the average for a whole class is ascertained the difference between the two dates will be surprisingly near thirty-three years. It is then easy to see that three generations make a century. In the upper grades it is interesting to divide the current year by 33 and ascertain the number of generations since the birth of Jesus. This exercise helps to develop a sense of chronology and vitalizes the words *generation* and *century*.
3. Time lines are helpful in the upper grades. The teacher should construct several on the blackboard, using several different beginning points and putting in different kinds of data. Time lines of inventions, discoveries, wars, immigration, and other topics can be made significant. Pupils should design and execute various kinds of time lines. A rope and clothespins and a string with paper streamers provide variations from drawn lines. Pupils should be encouraged to draw time lines of their own lives, starting with their birth year and marking off such events as they know or care to find out. Perhaps the birth of a sister, the death of a relative, the removal of the family, starting to school, getting a job, and similar occurrences will be most frequently used as notches on the time lines.

4. A pupil can frequently gain a time sense and an added perspective by learning the birth year of his father, grandfather, or some older person. He will secure a greater sense of the reality

of the first World War, the coming of sound films, or any other event, if the older person can talk about it as a personal experience. The pupil thus touches past events vicariously.

5. The significance and importance of dates should be made clear. Possibly the recent requirement of birth certificates with their emphasis upon dates will lessen popular antipathy toward them. The person who has no regard for dates will sooner or later place a cause *after* its effect. Obvious anachronisms, such as Washington reading by an electric light, Grant listening to a radio, or Wilson broadcasting to the nation, would be detected by the most inattentive person, but many such errors pass undetected because one does not know dates. A date is the number of an event in sequence. History without sequence is inconceivable, and the study of any topic, problem, invention, idea, or institution is, in part at least, an attempt to see it in perspective, in its various stages of growth.

6. Associate events and dates, dates and events. Do this, not for the sake of the date, but for the purpose of seeing the significance of the event; its significance cannot be grasped unless it is placed in some kind of time sequence or relationship. After the association of an event with its date has been firmly fixed, each will reenforce the other.

7. Teach a few exact dates. Repeated studies show that a pupil learns a specific date, like 1492, 1789, 1861, and 1914 more easily and more surely than he does an approximate date. In fact, such approximate dates as "the first decade of the twentieth century," "the last part of the eighteenth century," or "the third decade of the nineteenth century" are difficult for adults, and pointless for pupils of the elementary grades. If the pupil learns a few key dates he can easily make associations with other events and date them *approximately*. The point here is, not that approximate dates are valueless, but they gain reality only when they are enclosed within the limits of definite dates.

CONCEPTS OF PLACE

Time and place are the two elements that make social occurrences significant. The statement that a revolution occurred, a king reigned, or a war was fought are rather pointless unless time

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and place are given. While the date of an event is important, it is incomplete without the location.

The following locational and geographic words are presumably the simplest ones of this nature in the English language. It is interesting to note that only 21 such words occur among the first five hundred listed by Thorndike and Lorge, whereas the list contains 40 time concepts. But in the second five hundred words the proportion is reversed, with 63 place words and only 16 time concepts. This reversal seems to indicate that time concepts are easier for the child than place concepts, but that distant and inclusive place concepts are easier than advanced time concepts. In other words, location is easier than chronology.

LOCATIONAL AND GEOGRAPHIC CONCEPTS

(Derived from Thorndike and Lorge)

1-500	below	iron	star	eastern
across	beyond	island	station	everywhere
America	blow	lake	storm	farther
back	Chicago	London	stream	harbor
close	cloud	lower	sugar	inside
country	coal	material	valley	local
far	cold	middle	warm	northern
front	cool	mountain	wave	park
land	degree	natural	weather	Pennsylvania
left	direction	nature	west	Philadelphia
mile	distance	north	wood	pole
near	dry	ocean		port
New York	earth	oil	1001-2000	region
out	east	outside	apart	Rome
right	edge	position	area	Russia
sea	England	rain	avenue	somewhere
sun	Europe	raise	beach	source
there	field	salt	beneath	southern
up	forest	scene	Boston	Spain
Washington	France	silver	China	surface
where	Germany	sky	coast	territory
wind	gold	snow	county	throughout
501-1000	heat	soil	desert	unto
bay	hill	south	distant	Virginia
behind	hot	space	district	western



MANUAL AS WELL AS MENTAL TESTS PROVIDE
BASES FOR EVALUATING PUPIL CAPACITIES
AND PROGRESS.



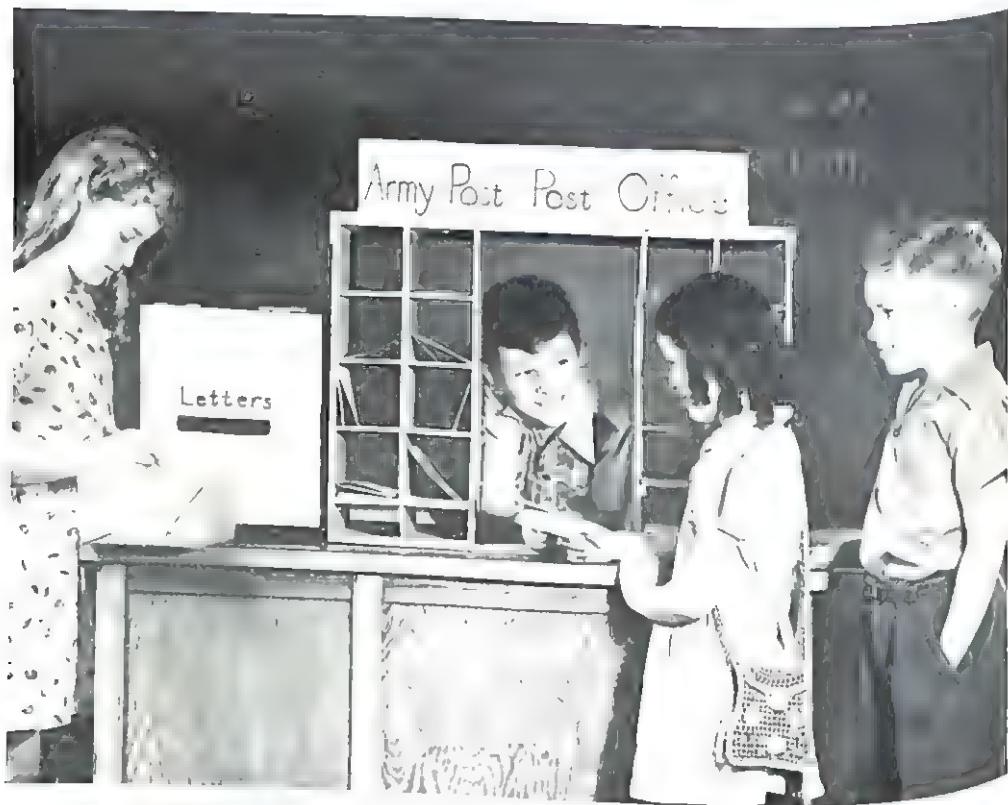
THE STUDY OF AIRPLANE ROUTES FACILITATES THE DE-
VELOPMENT OF TIME AND PLACE.



EFFORTS TO EXPRESS THEMSELVES
HELP PUPILS TO UNDERSTAND OTHERS
BETTER.



VISUAL AIDS STRENGTHEN THE GROWTH
OF CONCEPTS AND PROMOTE THE DE-
VELOPMENT OF SKILLS.



SKILLS CONSTITUTE ONE OF THE PERMANENT OUTCOMES OF
THE SOCIAL STUDIES.

TEACHING GEOGRAPHIC CONCEPTS

Pupils have great difficulty in understanding that the world is round. They will repeat the statement, even believe it, but before Grade VII it is seldom that they will understand the idea. Certainly it is a difficult concept. That water will cling to the side of the earth and not fall away and not overflow the land is an amazing phenomenon. To explain it one introduces the idea of *gravity*, which is even harder to understand than the roundness of the earth.

Being a sphere, the earth has no fixed points of reference from which to measure distances and ascertain directions. The system by which a network of intersecting lines is used to compute distances and fix locations is a great human achievement. The equator is a social invention of great utility; whoever created it deserves credit. But it is unfortunate that we have not also created a longitudinal equator. Instead, we have the prime meridian, which is very confusing to children, and the international date line which is confusing to adults as well.

Since the earth is a sphere, it was necessary to devise latitude and longitude. To a mature adult the necessity goes far toward explaining the nature and use of such lines, but the first and basic difficulty for the pupil is to see the necessity of such a system. It is therefore no wonder that repeated studies have shown that pupils do not understand zone, tropic, latitude, longitude, date line, altitude, and other concepts which are closely related to the basic problem of the sphericity of the earth. Better and larger globes, more legible maps, and better teaching will certainly lead to more satisfactory results. Perhaps the air age with its planes and maps of air routes has helped materially to understand the roundness of the earth. Fundamentally, however, the problem is similar to that of chronology in that only maturity will bring the clear light of a full understanding.

The conclusion then is clear. It is a waste of time and effort to try to teach these involved concepts relating to the sphericity of the earth before Grade VI or VII. It is feasible and practicable to study many aspects of geography, such as climate, moisture, configuration, products, trade, etc., long before trying to explain

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latitude and longitude and other difficult concepts. It therefore seems advisable to limit the geographic concepts of the first four or five grades largely to those listed above. In teaching them all that was said above about the teaching of social concepts applies to these locational and geographic terms.

DEVELOPING GENERALIZATIONS

A generalization is a synthesis, a conclusion, and a formula for predicting. It is composed of concepts and facts. Consider, for example, the following facts:

1. In looking at a high mountain one can observe the rather sharp line above which trees do not grow.
2. On top of a high mountain the vegetation is very scanty.
3. The biggest trees grow far below the timber line.

From these facts one may generalize: "Altitude affects vegetation" or more specifically: "As altitude increases vegetation decreases." This formula can be used to predict the kind of vegetation that accompanies particular altitudes. It is an example of an understanding that is repeatedly useful and that is likely to become a permanent possession. One forgets facts, but significant generalizations last a lifetime.

The nature and value of generalizations are described in Chapter 15. Here the purpose is to guide pupils in the process of understanding generalizations and of making valid ones for themselves. One may accept a generalization on faith and never test its origin or its validity. This is a reasonable and economical attitude in many areas. "Courtesy pays," "Formal procedures are necessary in the case of large groups," "A drouth lessens the yield per acre."

If, however, one wishes to understand a generalization thoroughly he must learn some of the specific instances on which it rests. Generalizations can seldom be conveyed to a pupil; he must add instance to instance and perceive the soundness of the concluding generalization.

Teaching a generalization directly is apt to destroy its value; in such a procedure it becomes for the pupil a mere fact. Its inclusive nature, its component elements, and its predictive value are likely to be obscured. "Pioneers suffered many hardships"

is a true generalization. It means little to a pupil, however, unless he can cite instances of some particular hardship suffered by particular persons, in a particular place, and at a particular time. The teacher should point out the difference between a fact and a generalization; she should stress the greater value of the latter and so help pupils to identify, understand, and apply it.

The understanding of existing generalizations is important; it is the first step toward making them for oneself. As is true in so many aspects of teaching, the most useful generalization is the one which the pupil makes for himself. Consequently the most that a teacher can do in developing generalizations is to provide examples, identify materials, and help to assemble related instances. The pupil must see the relationships and draw the synthesizing conclusion.

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Describes a test made to measure vocabulary growth and analyzes the effects of various subjects upon such growth.

BURNHAM, ARCHER L., "A Basic Reference List of Geographic Terms for Fourth Grade Geography," *Journal of Geography*, 38: 283-288, October, 1939.

A word list for teachers and writers of materials for Grade IV.

FRIEDMAN, KOPPLE C., "The Growth of Time Concepts," *Social Education*, 8:29-31, January, 1944.

Stresses the need for systematic instruction in time concepts. Prior to Grade VIII the time sense, even when applied to a person's own life, is relatively undeveloped. Adult persons were also found to be quite deficient in a sense of chronology.

—, "Time Concepts of Elementary School Children," *Elementary School Journal*, 44:337-342, February, 1944.

On the basis of a study carried out in the Minneapolis schools, the author concludes that the child's understanding of time concepts and time vocabulary grows slowly, along with increasing maturity. He found no significant difference in rate of development between boys

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and girls. By the time pupils reach Grade VI they understand the conventional time system, the author concludes, but still find it difficult to put items in chronological order.

KEARNEY, NOLAN C., "An Analysis of the Vocabulary of First Grade Reading Material," *Journal of Educational Research*, 43: 481-493, March, 1950.

Reports that limited vocabularies and laborious repetition of words is the general practice in Grade I reading materials. Recommends the use of newer materials, which provide real experiences, as more effective media for learning the meaning and use of words.

LACEY, JOY MUCHMORE, *Social Studies Concepts of Children in the First Three Grades*. New York: Teachers College, Columbia University, 1932.

Tested the understanding of 125 general concepts. Shows that the curriculum is inadequate for teaching these concepts. Only part of their study is devoted to social concepts.

PISTOR, FREDERICK, "How Time Concepts Are Acquired by Children," *Educational Method*, 20:107-112, November, 1940.

Thinks that maturation is probably the most important factor in developing time concepts.

RINSLAND, HENRY D., *A Basic Vocabulary of Elementary School Children*. New York: Macmillan, 1945.

A list of 14,571 words used by elementary pupils. In spite of the confused and confusing directions on how to use the list, it is worth the effort necessary to decipher the puzzle.

STURT, MARY, *The Psychology of Time*. London: Harcourt, Brace, 1925.

A very readable and concrete account of the development of time concepts.

THORNDIKE, EDWARD L., and LORGE, IRVING, *The Teacher's Word Book of 30,000 Words*. New York: Teachers College, Columbia University, 1944.

This edition should replace all previous issues. Every professional library should have a copy, for it meets dozens of needs. Easy to use.

DEVELOPING CONCEPTS AND GENERALIZATIONS

WEEKS, RUTH MARY, ed., *A Correlated Curriculum*. National Council of Teachers of English. New York: Appleton-Century, 1936.

Lists some concepts from the "social sciences" which might be included in a correlated program.

WESLEY, EDGAR B., "Some Criticisms of Word Lists with Particular Reference to History," *The Social Studies*, 25:79-82, February, 1934.

Discusses limited usefulness of word lists. Shows that history has no special vocabulary.

19. UTILIZING READING MATERIALS

INCREASED MATERIALS

An outstanding development in elementary schools is the use of more and more varied materials. The supply has become greater, and even more noticeable is the rising demand for them on the part of the teachers. This rising demand is based upon three diverse but converging movements: (1) the earnest effort to provide for individual differences, (2) greater flexibility in social studies programs, and (3) the preparation of resource units by teachers.

The supply of materials is varied. Textbooks are more numerous, better illustrated, and better written. Some publishers have put out series that reflect the social processes stressed in programs and others have specifically based their books upon the widening areas of the social and geographic experience of the pupils. Supplementary volumes and sets have greatly enriched the offerings of the regular textbooks. The supply of free and inexpensive materials from advertisers and from the research and educational divisions of the large corporations has become more attractive and the commercial aspects are less noticeable. Even public and official documents, particularly at the community level, are yielding to the demands for simplicity and attractiveness.

Evidences of the availability of these varied materials can be seen by visiting a classroom or school library. The number of biographies in readable style has been increased, and the narrative and descriptive books for children have become more attractive. The establishment of book centers in classrooms has meant that these new materials are being seen and utilized.

Further evidence of the availability and use of these materials can be seen by examining the bibliography of a typical resource unit. No matter whether it deals with the zoo, grocery store, farm, trains, games, the local community, colonial life, a foreign land, or world relations it abounds in pupil and teacher references to books, leaflets, pamphlets, bulletins, pictures, films, radio programs, art products, and other types of helpful materials. The resourcefulness and energy which cause teachers to prepare these units with their numerous references has been transformed into a demand for their procurement for classroom use. Naturally this movement has not reached all schools, but the trend is quite widespread and strong.

Providing for individual differences and creating the curriculum have given teachers and pupils a sense of freedom. It is manifesting itself in the lessened dependence upon textbooks. In many places the trend is toward buying more books and fewer copies of each. The movement toward more and more varied materials has unquestionably promoted better teaching and facilitated learning.

TEXTBOOKS

In spite of the increasing supply of varied materials the textbook continues to be the principal basis of instruction above the primary grades. While the textbook has been misused, criticized, and denounced, it maintains an important status in American schools. Those who came to find fault with it have often remained to rewrite and improve it. The textbook has constantly improved in the reliability and simplicity of its content and in general attractiveness.

Textbooks perform several very important functions. They provide logical and appealing organizations; they indicate the minimum content of the subject; they furnish a common basis for the pupils; while they seldom blaze completely new trails, they do provide a highway for carrying better practices to all the schools. Their pictures, maps, and other illustrative materials are convenient and usually well integrated with the context.

While the textbook renders these services, it should not be regarded as the curriculum. It deserves neither condemnation nor

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slavish respect. Textbooks are amenable and pliable; they should be neither scorned nor worshiped. Like visual aids, they should be used whenever they can make a contribution, and they should be supplemented by other available materials.

The textbooks in elementary social studies may be divided into four groups: (1) geography; (2) history, which is subdivided into European and American; (3) integrated or fused social studies; and (4) unit booklets on all kinds of topics. A few characteristics of each group deserve attention.

Geography textbooks are usually written in series, containing from two to ten separate volumes. The old custom of having two cycles has nearly disappeared. The most common themes are "living in" and "journeys," although most textbooks reveal no themes in their titles. Geographies treat both *natural* and *cultural* aspects, as the following list of most frequent topics shows: natural — configuration, climate, soils, drainage, vegetation, minerals, and forests; cultural — agriculture, manufacturing, occupations, communication, transportation, trade, cities, population, and housing. These topics merge into one another. For example, a consideration of minerals is interwoven with their use by man, and the discussion of population invariably reflects the natural resources which sustain the people. Thus geography seems to be a rather thoroughly socialized subject.

Prior to the high costs of paper and printing materials, geography texts showed a consistent improvement. Pictures and maps increased in number and quality; greater accuracy prevailed; and the aids to learning were more varied and numerous. Consequently geography has tended to hold its place as a subject partly because of the quality and attractiveness of the textbooks.

Textbooks in history designed for elementary grades are about equally divided into European and American history. The course in European backgrounds has maintained its popularity since 1909, when it was recommended by the Committee of Eight of the American Historical Association. This European history is variously regarded as "backgrounds," "beginnings," and "homelands." The areas most frequently treated are the Ancient East, Egypt, Greece, Rome, and a hurried glimpse of Europe during the Middle Ages. Perhaps as many as two thirds of the books

are in series, with one, and sometimes two, volumes devoted to Europe and two or more to the United States.

Nearly all the textbooks devoted to American history stress the colonial period, give some attention to the Revolution and early republic, and then stress the westward movement. The history textbooks have tended to include more and more social materials. In some the narrative and historical elements have been so minimized as to raise questions as to how the books should be classified. Histories have probably not maintained their status as firmly as have the geographies.

The fused or integrated textbooks in social studies have shown two characteristics. The older ones tended to organize their materials around civic and community services. They were thus social studies books with a core of civics. The second group consists of socialized readers which contain elements of civics, geography, economics, and history, often arranged topically or by problems. Some of the integrated or fused textbooks have adopted themes, such as community service, developing democracy, living together, making a living, or other similar ones. This type of book seems well adjusted to the interests and capacities of pupils. It does not stress subjects but themes, topics, or problems.

The fourth type of text materials is the unit booklet. Several publishers have put out a great number of attractive booklets on a great variety of areas and topics. One publisher has a charming series on the countries and characteristics of Latin America. Another deals with such topics as bread, airplanes, planning cities, the Santa Fe trail, money, fair trial, freedom of speech, etc. The unit booklet permits the free selection of units and can quickly be passed to other classes. By dealing only and wholly with one specific topic it can achieve unity and present enough details to build up a sense of reality and understanding on the part of the pupil. The matter of costs seems to be the only obstacle to their widespread use. If the demand for them increases, however, the volume of sales may enable publishers to produce them more cheaply.

In selecting textbooks the teacher should keep in mind the purpose for the semester, the capacities of her pupils, and the

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qualities of the books. In choosing a book she might well use a rating scale. In any event, she should consider authorship, appearance, length, date, size of type, organization, proportion of space allotted to various topics, style, vocabulary, maps, pictures and such learning aids as word lists, projects, questions, and references.

Methods of using the textbook vary greatly. The old idea that it should be respected and either memorized or paraphrased has completely disappeared, but some teachers still have a lingering reverence for a textbook. The use and deep appreciation of it does not call for any particular method or procedure. A teacher may use one or several textbooks and yet carry out the plans that she and the class have evolved. Naturally an inanimate thing like a textbook should not be blamed for the abuses to which it has sometimes been subjected. In using a textbook, the teacher should see that it does not monopolize the whole time of the pupil, that it does not become the sole source of his reading. In turn, the teacher should see that it does not become the whole outline, content, and plan. On the highest level, the textbook is a supplement, a basis for a common understanding, a point of departure, but it does not dominate or determine the content or procedure of the course.

WORKBOOKS

Within recent years workbooks in the social studies have become numerous and popular. They are frequently organized to fit a particular textbook which they follow in organization, although many are general and so have an independent structure. The most common features of workbooks are completion exercises, outlines, summaries, questions, word lists, names, dates, outline maps, diagrams, charts, tables, graphs, lists, suggested reports, projects, activities, references, and tests.

Workbooks have been used to guide poor readers, to overcome the handicap of absences, to check the reading ability of the whole class, to develop study skills, to insure a minimum preparation by every pupil, to save mimeographing, to lessen the work of preparing study guides, to provide self-testing materials, and to supply an objective basis for evaluating the results.

The use of workbooks provoked violent criticisms. They were said to mechanize the work, lull the teacher into inactivity, rob the pupil of individuality, cause useless drill, stunt the growth of resourcefulness, and waste time. Such objective studies as have been made seem to prove, however, that workbooks are useful for the poor reader and that they improve the quality of reading for specific purpose for all students. Whatever may be their merits, the trend now is to use them individually rather than by classes.

REFERENCE BOOKS

Many standard reference books for the social studies are too difficult for classes of the elementary schools. Yet, for those pupils who can use them and for the sake of introducing useful sources it is advisable that a generous number be available. Fortunately some of them are within the grasp of typical pupils of the intermediate grades.

First to be mentioned are the children's encyclopedias, which are well organized, inclusive, well written, attractive, and convenient to use. The teacher should demonstrate their use and cite them frequently. The pupil who acquires the habit of using the dictionary and the encyclopedia is likely to become a well-informed person.

Teachers should turn carefully and leisurely through encyclopedias. If they realize the fullness and richness of these aids they are more likely to introduce them to the pupils. When pupils acquire the habit of using children's encyclopedias, they are likely also to use those which are intended for adults. And they often succeed remarkably well in securing useful information from these relatively difficult books.

Perhaps the three leading encyclopedias for children are *Britannica Junior* (Chicago: University of Chicago Press); *Compton's Pictured Encyclopedia* (Chicago: Compton, 1941, 15 vols.); *The World Book Encyclopedia* (Chicago: Quarrie, 1941, 19 vols.). In spite of the cost, it is doubtful if more information can be made available to children any more cheaply than by buying one or more of these sets.

There are a number of yearbooks and annuals, some of which

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can be profitably used in elementary schools. They are not difficult if the teacher will demonstrate their use for three or four varied purposes. Factual and statistical information can be presented in small spaces, and pupils need help in appreciating the value of such publications as the *World Almanac*, the *World Book Annual*, the *Abstract of the Census*, the *Current Events Yearbook*, and even such advanced volumes as the *Statesman's Yearbook*, the *American Yearbook*, and *Who's Who in America*.

In addition to these national references, the school should have local and state reference books. Nearly every state publishes a legislative manual, a handbook, or a "blue," "red," or "green" book of facts. They usually contain a copy of the state constitution, the various governmental units, the names of all officers, boards, committees, etc., and a great deal of information about the resources and industries of the state. Many cities publish similar compilations. Museums, industries, and art galleries also publish useful guides and handbooks.

Atlases furnish a mine of information. Unfortunately, the content of such books can scarcely be simplified, and so the teacher will have to decide which pupils can profitably use such books as Harper's *Atlas of American History*, Shepherd's *Historical Atlas*, Goode's *School Atlas*, Rand McNally's *World Atlas*, or Appleton's *School Atlas*. The new atlas of American history by Adams and Coleman contains unsurpassed maps which children of almost every grade above the primary school can appreciate. Fortunately, the newspapers and magazines have put out enormous numbers of all kinds of maps in recent years. And the increased use of the airplane has given rise to many new kinds of maps which make it easier to convince pupils that the world is really round.

THE ELEMENTARY SCHOOL LIBRARY

Many teachers believe in having a large number of books in the classroom, and no one will deny the value of their mere presence. Yet the existence of book centers in classrooms need not prevent the development of a school library. From it the teachers can procure books and rotate those which are available for each class. The existence of a general library with its cata-

logue, reference books, bulletin board, convenient tables and chairs, and its general air of invitation is a part of the training of every elementary pupil. The earlier he becomes accustomed to such an atmosphere the more likely he is to develop wide and profitable reading habits.

The library is the laboratory for solving the problem of individual differences. In it pupils of all levels of ability can find a writer who knows how to communicate with each one. An attractive and properly managed library can make a large contribution toward democratizing and socializing the children. It can become an exhibition center for pupil products, maps, and drawings, as well as a storage place for films, art objects, museum pieces, specimens, and models. The library is an index of the spirit and achievements of the school.

A central library offers several advantages over distributing all books among the classrooms. It offers economy of purchasing, efficiency in cataloguing, facility in locating desired materials, rapid turnover of books, greater choice for teachers and pupils and, when a librarian can be employed, helpful and systematic service.

A good school library should endeavor to provide good reading in all areas of the social studies. While no classification is complete, each has suggestive value. The following areas are those in which the elementary library should provide appealing books.

CLASSES OF SOCIAL STUDIES BOOKS

1. Actors and the theater	14. Fairy stories
2. Animals	15. Family living
3. Artists	16. Farm life
4. Aviation	17. Food
5. Biography	18. Foreign lands
6. Business and industry	19. Friendship
7. Chivalry	20. Government
8. Circus	21. Health
9. City life	22. Heroism
10. Costuming	23. History
11. Crime	24. Hobbies
12. Current affairs	25. Holidays
13. Discovery and exploration	26. Housing

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- 27. Humor
- 28. Hunting
- 29. Immigrants
- 30. Indians
- 31. Inventions
- 32. Isolated peoples
- 33. Labor
- 34. Making things
- 35. Manufacturing
- 36. Medicine, Leaders in
- 37. Migrations
- 38. Mining
- 39. Musicians
- 40. Mystery
- 41. Mythology
- 42. Patriotic stories
- 43. Personal problems
- 44. Pioneers
- 45. Playing and games
- 46. Poetry
- 47. Policemen and detectives
- 48. Primitive people
- 49. School and college
- 50. Science, Men of
- 51. Sea, Stories of
- 52. Small town life
- 53. Social problems
- 54. Sports
- 55. Success, Stories of
- 56. Travel
- 57. Vacations
- 58. Vocations
- 59. War
- 60. Western life
- 61. Wild life
- 62. Writers

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AYER, ADELAIDE M., *Some Difficulties in Elementary School History*. Contributions to Education, No. 212. New York: Teachers College, Columbia University, 1926.

While this research is now quite remote, its verdict that reading materials were too difficult for the intended grade level seems to be still true.

BOND, G. L., and WAGNER, E. B., *Teaching the Child to Read*. New York: Macmillan, revised edition, 1950.

A revision of a well-known text. Reflects the latest research. Useful at all grade levels.

DEPARTMENT OF ELEMENTARY SCHOOL PRINCIPALS, *Elementary School Libraries: Twelfth Yearbook*. Washington: National Education Association, 1933.

In spite of its age this inclusive treatment still merits attention.

HOWELL, WALLACE J., "Work Study Skills of Children in Grades IV to VIII," *Elementary School Journal*, 50:384-389, March, 1950.

UTILIZING READING MATERIALS

Gives methods and techniques, with tables, for improving the pupils' facility in the use of the library, reading and interpreting maps, and using reference materials such as atlases, dictionaries, and encyclopedias.

WILSON, MARY C., "Supplementary Reading for Elementary Social Studies," *Social Education*, 13:29-31, January, 1949.

Stresses accuracy, fullness, range, and variety of sources for additional reading in the middle grades.

WRONSKI, STANLEY P., *The Use of Government Publications in the Social Studies*, Ph.D. thesis, University of Minnesota, 1950.

A survey, analysis, and concrete recommendations for the use of official documents.

Part 6

RESOURCES AND EQUIPMENT

20. UTILIZING CURRENT AFFAIRS

CURRENT AFFAIRS DEFINED

The terms "current affairs" and "current events" are used interchangeably to designate contemporary occurrences. In popular usage current events are not history. Logically this distinction is invalid, for whatever *has* happened is now in the past and so becomes a part of history. But the distinction between history and current events is practical and not logical. What has happened too recently to be included in textbooks is by common consent regarded as "current."

By excluding history, current events become largely political, social, economic, and geographic. These areas are current, contemporary, and present and presumably more interesting, more important, and more understandable than past events of the same nature. The activities of Congress, a speech by the governor, the construction of a new factory, the visit of a celebrity, a wreck, a fire, a robbery, a murder, a strike, a divorce, and a storm are typical events reported in our daily newspapers. The newspaper is filled with the ephemeral and the permanent, the trivial and the important. Thus it is clear that a current event is not necessarily suitable for pupils merely because it is current.

It is well for the teacher to recognize that movements, ideas, trends, and changes are also current events. The fact that a great dam near Mt. Shasta was recently dedicated is perhaps more important than many news items which received ten times as much space. The current developments in our defense program are events of great significance. The growth of the federal police system is a current development which may have profound influence. The weather with its consequent effect upon corn or wheat may turn out to be a current event of importance. It is

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therefore well for the teacher to insist that ideas, controversies, debates, movements, and trends are current events, thus giving the word "event" a less specific but more significant meaning.

Most current events fall within the social studies field. Few occurrences in the teaching of Spanish, in the growth of mathematics, or even in science are reported in the newspapers and magazines. Consequently the social studies teacher, rather than the teacher of other fields, is expected to be the guide through the complex maze of the contemporary world.

IMPORTANCE OF CURRENT EVENTS IN A DEMOCRACY

Democracy is a process and as such it must operate in an ever-changing scene. The citizens in a democracy must therefore understand not only the principles of the democratic process, but the changing factors which affect the operation of the process. One may have a firm grasp of the principle of racial toleration and yet be confused as to how it can be applied in the employment of Negroes and whites in an automobile plant. He may have a clear view of the principle of equal representation and yet be confused as to how a voter in Mississippi has ten times the representation in Congress than a voter in Wisconsin has. Insight into the principles of democracy and belief in their efficacy are not sufficient. The alert citizen must also know current conditions; he must help in the ever-recurring problem of adjusting principles to concrete situations. There can be no such entity as a good citizen of a democracy who is ignorant of current events.

Since the citizen of a democracy must be informed, it inevitably follows that the pupil must learn the techniques of keeping abreast of current affairs. The teacher must therefore be a guide in selecting events that are worthy of study and in relating them to the rest of the school program.

OBJECTIVES OF CONTEMPORARY AFFAIRS

The objectives of teaching contemporary affairs are similar to those of the whole social studies field. Because they operate through timely and urgent materials, however, they seem to be more tangible and realizable. Contemporary affairs constitute only a part of the curriculum; standing alone they would be in-

sufficient. It is equally true, however, to say that the curriculum without contemporary affairs is inadequate and incomplete. Thus the objectives which are claimed for contemporary affairs very properly reflect those of the whole program. The objectives which seem to be achievable through the study of contemporary affairs are as follows:

OBJECTIVES OF CONTEMPORARY AFFAIRS

1. To expand popular information
2. To develop skill in locating reading materials on particular topics
3. To promote the critical appraisal of information obtained from the radio, newspapers, magazines, etc.
4. To promote discrimination in the choice of authors and sources of information
5. To develop skill in resolving inconsistencies, contradictions, and errors
6. To increase the ability to distinguish between fact and opinion, between a major and a minor fact, between a permanent principle and a temporary trend
7. To develop the ability to distinguish the significant from the trivial
8. To develop the ability to make valid generalizations
9. To broaden and deepen sympathies
10. To promote understanding and toleration
11. To increase faith in the democratic process
12. To vitalize citizenship
13. To appreciate the interdependence of peoples and nations
14. To promote the cause of world peace

NATURE OF CURRENT EVENTS IN THE SCHOOLS

There is no consensus as to whether "current events" are a *subject*, a *resource*, a *method*, a *motivation*, a *problem*, or a *standard*. It is desirable that the teacher think the matter through and form some theory as to the nature of current events for the classroom.

Perhaps the simplest and most tangible view of current events is to regard them as a part of the curriculum. Thus new developments are to be added to the history, geography, and civics already in the program. Since such developments are not in the

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textbooks, the teacher must use newspapers, pupil news summaries, and magazines, and extract from them these new materials for the curriculum. The view that current events are a part of the curriculum, but a part which must be selected at the last minute, leads naturally to the setting aside of a definite time in the daily program. The result is an additional *subject*.

Some teachers regard current events as a *resource*, a reservoir of illustrations, as contemporary occurrences which can be used to clarify and exemplify the realities described in the textbooks and units. According to this theory the teacher feels no obligation to make assignments or to have specific periods for the study of current events. They are not a part of the curriculum but a convenient barrel of supplementary materials which may or may not be used frequently. The teacher herself keeps up with current developments and uses them in her teaching, but for long periods she may find no particular use for them. She may on some occasions ask the pupils to read and report on a contemporary development, but the whole area is treated in a more or less random manner.

A third view of current events is that they constitute a *method*. Since much of history, civics, geography, and other contents are remote in time and place and also in the experience of the pupils, some teachers think of current events as the point of contact, as the means of approach. The procedure involves a survey of recent events and a comparison of them with what is described in the unit or subject being studied. In other words current events become a method of approaching the more difficult materials in the course of study or in the textbook.

A fourth view of current events is that they provide *motivation*. Presumably the pupil is interested in what is now happening. Since he is already interested in an election, a recent cyclone, or a recent invention, it seems easy to lead him to the study of a former election, of past storms and cyclones, and of the invention of the reaper or telephone. Current events thus serve as a motivation; it is the process of going from the known to the unknown, from the familiar to the unfamiliar.

A fifth view of current events is to regard them as a series of *problems*. Being complex and involved, they constitute a chal-

lenge. According to this view the pupil needs all that he can learn from the past in order to understand current happenings in the present. Current events, instead of being easy, familiar, and interesting, are really involved and intricate. They constitute the ultimate problem rather than the easy means to understand other problems. They are the end and not the means.

A sixth view of current events is to regard them as the *standard* of achievement. They are more than a series of problems; they present the ultimate in difficulty. The pupil who can understand the problem of redistricting a state for legislative purposes, the procedure for electing a President, the current methods of preventing soil erosion, and the latest plans for housing has passed the ultimate test in insight. Instead of being a facile pathway to understanding, current events pose the most difficult problems in all the realm of human living. Instead of being easy curricular materials, they are the most nearly unmanageable. Instead of being a motivation they present the problems in which the pupil has least interest. In brief, current events constitute the ultimate measure of understanding and so provide very little that is usable or helpful for pupils of the elementary school.

Perhaps the conclusion is that current events should not be regarded as any one of these — a subject, resource, method, motivation, problem, or standard, but as partaking of all of them. The resulting blend will be determined by the teacher rather than by the nature of current events themselves. The teacher who is prepared to utilize current events should feel that sense of freedom which entitles her to assign a whole period to their study, to use an event as a point of departure, or to use it as a basis for explaining an item in the curriculum. If one must choose between a current events program which takes precedence over the curriculum or one in which the curriculum determines the treatment of current events, he should unhesitatingly choose the latter. A current events program which runs away with the curriculum is more than a doubtful asset; it is a liability.

KEEPING UP WITH CURRENT AFFAIRS

The first and most important step in keeping up with the world is the daily habit of reading the newspaper thoroughly. The

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teacher cannot escape this responsibility by saying that there is no good daily newspaper available. She must read and make the most of the one that is available. Fortunate is the teacher who has access to more than one paper. She can thus compare and contrast both the reporting and the opinions. Thorough reading of the paper means that the first and greatest emphasis will be placed upon the news. Much of it is ephemeral, trivial, and pointless, but even these items must be noted in order to gain a sense of comparative values. The significant should be separated from the less significant. In reading the news the teacher will inevitably become acquainted with news agencies, such as the Associated Press, International News Service, and the United Press. She will learn how to judge the relative reliability of press associations, special correspondents, and local reporters. The critical reading of a newspaper involves an analysis of its prejudices, noticing how it confuses *facts* and *interpretations*, how it colors its news, how the *opinions* of a political reporter are frequently put on page one and given the semblance of *news*. While the teacher may be dependent upon a particular paper for her information, she is not dependent upon it for her interpretations.

In addition to the news sections the teacher should read the special features, the columnists, the editorials, the cartoons, the financial page, the advertisements, and possibly the sports page if she teaches the upper grades. A familiarity with funny page characters is one avenue of keeping up with children and understanding them.

Some teachers think that the radio with its broadcasters and commentators furnishes very material help in keeping up with events. Unquestionably this is true, but it is also true that bias and coloration are more obvious over the radio than they are on the printed page. Critical listening is as necessary as critical reading, for the tone and manner of the commentator must be recognized and evaluated.

Keeping up with current events is an all-year job. One cannot start in September and hope to create an interest within a few days. As a citizen one *should* read the newspapers all year; as a teacher one *must* read them all year in order to have the interest, continuity, and understanding which are necessary for the class-

room use of what is happening. Keeping up is a fundamental civic obligation as well as a professional duty. The teacher is therefore justly expected to be better informed and to have a more comprehensive grasp of what is happening than the average citizen.

How much of the materials from current events can be used in the classroom depends upon the grade level, the nature of current happenings, and the skill of the teacher. Regardless of the amount, the teacher should earnestly endeavor to train pupils in critical appraisal, in distinguishing facts from opinions, and in awareness of the bias and limitations of all news sources. From this standpoint it is possible that the methods of thinking will turn out to be the most important aspect of current events.

The teacher who does not keep up with current events cannot teach them in school. No trick, device, or formula will offset the handicap of ignorance. Shallow and superficial teaching in history is lamentable and will eventually be obvious even to the pupils, but a perfunctory handling of current events is *immediately* evident. The teacher who is not genuinely interested in current events will probably be more comfortable if she makes no attempt to use them in her school work. Just as they are potentially a great storehouse of help, they are also potentially a great source of confusion and perplexity. Scholarship or the lack of it is more quickly evident in current events than in history, civics, or geography. The conclusion is that the teacher must be an active citizen, an informed teacher, a living person. She can then utilize current events with a feeling of assurance and a sense of mastery.

While each person must work out his own formula for keeping up with the world, the following one may prove suggestive.

FORMULA FOR KEEPING INFORMED

1. A daily newspaper, preferably two
2. A weekly news magazine, such as *Newsweek* or *Time*
3. A weekly magazine devoted to world affairs, such as *United States News and World Report*
4. A weekly journal of opinion and criticism, such as *The New Republic* or *The Nation*
5. A monthly magazine of features, opinions, and summaries, such as *The Atlantic* or *Harper's*

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6. Current pamphlets — listed in the *Vertical File Service Catalog*
7. Recent books in the social sciences and on contemporary problems
8. Radio and television programs
9. Lectures, forums, and conversations

SELECTING CURRENT EVENTS

What current events are worthy of attention in the classroom? Availability, although a conditioning factor, is certainly not the proper criterion, for the teacher has available articles on women's hats, the trials and tribulations of a football coach, the rumors of gang warfare, the bickerings over a grade crossing, and hundreds of other current subjects. Mere availability cannot be used as the principle of selection.

Frequency and space allotment will not serve as criteria, for on these bases trivia would displace consequential items. Recency is not a good basis either, because hundreds of items meet this requirement. Reliability will not do, for the report of a murder may be just as accurate as an item about the United Nations. Learnability and interest will not do, for many trivial items are just as interesting and learnable as those that deal with important occurrences. What then is the basis for selecting current events for the classroom?

Perhaps the most valid principle for selecting current events is *utility*. Presumably the curriculum is a collection of what educators regard as significant; it is that part of the social heritage which teachers are trying to transmit to the oncoming generation. Therefore the curriculum is based upon *past* and *future* utility. Thus the conclusion is that the teacher should select for study those current events which are related to the curriculum. An occurrence which cannot meet this test should be ignored, and the connection should be direct and obvious, not strained and circuitous.

A coal strike is a threatened interruption to the supplying of man's needs. Coal is a resource and its use is indispensable in industry; therefore a coal strike, potential or actual, may fittingly be included as a significant current event. A current election, being merely the latest step in a process previously established by a constitutional provision, is obviously related to the curriculum.

The installation of a new sewage system is related to the sanitary principles which are studied at various grade levels; clearly such an item is worthy of attention. Rumors of uprisings in any country of the world may be important, for we, as a member of the United Nations, now share the responsibility of maintaining peace.

The selection of events on the basis of their connection with the curriculum is not merely a good technical formula; it is a sound and defensible principle. A supervisor or patron might properly object to the indiscriminate consideration in the classroom of all kinds of events. The teacher who shows that the selected topics are related to the curriculum not only gives a good technical reason for inclusion; she also shows that she is following a sound principle.

The teacher might develop a conscious scale of importance for measuring news items. This scale can be worked out with the help of the pupils. Spirited debates are likely to ensue as to the relative importance of many of the areas. The following areas of news are in order from *least* to *most* important. While this particular scale may satisfy no one it may cause others to rank news items according to some scale of value.

AREAS OF NEWS

(Arranged in ascending order of importance — illustrative only)

1. Odd and humorous occurrences
2. Sports
3. Divorces and scandals
4. Advertisements
5. Religion and churches
6. Entertainment — films, radio, television
7. Society and clubs
8. Music, art, literature
9. Speeches, conventions, resolutions, protests
10. Local news and politics
11. Crime — fights, murders, frauds, etc.
12. Fires
13. Weather
14. State government and politics
15. Accidents, automobile and industrial
16. Court trials and investigations

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17. Science and invention
18. Disasters — earthquakes, floods, etc.
19. Prominent persons
20. Labor and strikes
21. Health and medicine
22. Education
23. Prices and wages
24. Federal agencies, cabinet, court decisions
25. Business-employment, production, transportation
26. Foreign affairs
27. Congress
28. President
29. War
30. United Nations

CRITERIA FOR SELECTING CURRENT EVENTS

Faced with the problems of evaluating and selecting current materials for classroom use, the teacher needs the guidance of some valid criteria. The following are suggested as practicable standards.

1. **SUITABILITY.** In selecting news items, the age, experience, and understanding of the class are factors to be considered. The criterion of suitability requires that a news item be clearly written and that it contain sufficient and adequate information. Such matters as international monetary rates of exchange, fiscal statements, and involved legal technicalities are unsuitable because of their difficulty. Some reports are written too cleverly to be understandable. Some are sketchy and others are so vague and devious as to confuse the reader.
2. **RELIABILITY.** The second criterion for selecting news items is reliability. The report should have the earmarks of both internal and external accuracy. The reader must distinguish between rumor and truth, fact and opinion, verity and propaganda. He must remember and compare previous reports and past events with present reports. He must consider the particular viewpoint that a person, organization, institution, or agency is likely to express. Ascertaining the reliability of an item will ordinarily involve the use of more than one source of information.

3. **SCOPE.** Scope is that quality of a news item which indicates the area of its importance. Examples of headlines which indicate scope are as follows: local, "Thief Steals City Bus"; state, "New State Hospital Approved"; national, "Nation's Postal System to Be Overhauled"; international, "UN Disagrees over Korea"; world-wide, "UN Asks East-West Conference on Peace." Many events, however, are not so definite as to scope. A destructive flood or storm which is costly in lives and property and wipes out staple food crops will affect the economy of the country and its trade with other countries. Thus what appears to be a local disaster becomes international in scope. A presidential election in the United States is of world-wide concern because it determines the future foreign, as well as domestic, policies of a large and powerful nation. In evaluating the importance of an item in terms of scope, the number of people or countries affected should be taken into account.

4. **RECENCY.** The essence of contemporary affairs is recency, that characteristic which differentiates them from the rest of the curriculum. The standard of recency applies to discoveries and inventions. Technological developments have already made rapid and drastic changes in our civilization. Today it is radar, television, and planes flying faster than sound. Tomorrow it may be the realization of the possibilities of atomic energy. In the field of medicine one new miracle drug follows another. It is important, therefore, that we know about the latest inventions and discoveries in order to anticipate and understand the social changes which they inevitably produce.

5. **UTILITY.** All items, trivial or otherwise, have some degree of utility. Even the most insignificant has some value as entertainment or interest. But the serious application of this criterion implies that the item has discernible value for individuals, groups, or nations. Weather forecasts are useful to farmers and aviators; business reports influence merchants; the report of a drought in one area will influence farmers in another section. During election campaigns, newspapers print valuable information concerning issues and candidates. News of strikes, disasters, epidemics, revolutions, and congresses have utility for various groups and individuals. While few items have widespread or general utility,

most of them should have some practical value to a reasonable number of readers.

6. IMPORT. What is the meaning of a particular event, what does it signify, what is its import? Today there are innumerable interpreters — such as news analysts, editorialists, columnists, commentators, writers, and speakers — who analyze, evaluate, and appraise national and international affairs. In that they stimulate thoughtful appraisal, these interpreters make a valuable contribution. Their opinions and conclusions are often valid and helpful. They should not, however, supplant the individual's efforts to make his own interpretations and to be his own analyst. The import of an event is sometimes indicated by the timing of a news release. And again, the very absence of news may be significant.

7. PORTENT. One seldom reads a significant news item without speculating upon its portent for the future. Will we become involved in another war? Are we in danger of losing our civil rights? Will prices remain high? What will be done about housing? These are a few of the questions Americans are asking as they scan the news for information that will shed light on future developments. Journalists wrote pages and pages of speculation on the import and portent of the presidential election of 1948. Foreign commentators have written extensively on the portent of our vast armament program. While this criterion applies to a relatively small number of items, it is a significantly influential factor in determining the actions of individuals and the policies of nations.

8. CONSEQUENCE. This criterion indicates the effects or results of a reported development. It may be divided into a four-step scale, consisting of (1) inert, (2) significant, (3) urgent, and (4) critical. For example, an oddity in the day's news has small consequence; it is *inert*. An item about a new irrigation dam is *significant*. A report of a rising rebellion is *urgent*, and the news about an earthquake indicates a *critical* situation. Newspaper headlines sometimes imply that every event of an urgent nature is a crisis. Crises are precipitated by such events as the bombing of Pearl Harbor, a destructive hurricane, an uncontrolled epidemic, a disastrous flood, an explosion, an accident — something

devastatingly final. A news item may be important on the basis of its urgency if it indicates sudden or radical change. Conditions calling for immediate action or decision also rank high on the scale of consequence.

9. NOTABILITY. Criterion number nine takes into account the prominence and influence of persons, groups, and countries. If the head of a government makes a statement or announces a decision it is important because of his official position. Actors, scientists, and writers make the headlines because of their achievements. The National Association of Manufacturers, the Committee of Atomic Scientists, and the National Council for the Social Studies receive attention in the press and influence people in proportion to their notability. The affairs and policies of large and powerful countries are much more significant than are those of small countries. News of the United Nations is notable because its membership includes large and influential countries.

10. CONTINUITY. The tenth criterion applies to three kinds of news items: (1) those which deal with a continuing event; (2) those which reveal trends; and (3) those which constitute another step in a continuing process.

A trial, a strike, a war, an election campaign, or a session of Congress are continuing events in that they cover a series of related incidents or occurrences. The criterion of continuity reveals trends. The postwar trend toward militarism is obvious.

The criterion of continuity also guides in selecting those items which indicate developments in continuing processes. Migrating to more favored environments, developing the art of government, achieving national independence, and securing religious and intellectual freedom are examples of timeless, inclusive processes. China's efforts to emerge from feudalism have constituted a long and costly process. News about strikes, labor laws, safety regulations, automobile accidents, and licensing of radio and television are a few examples of items which show the continuing process of social adjustment to modern inventions.

In the practical application of these criteria all news items should meet the two irreducible criteria of suitability and reliability. When an item proves to be suitable and reliable it may then be evaluated according to the other criteria. News may be se-

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lected on the basis of more than one criterion; there is no sharp demarcation between the criteria of scope and notability, import and portent, and other closely related criteria.

PROCEDURES IN UTILIZING CURRENT EVENTS

Current events can be treated in as many different ways as any subject or field. The most frequent methods for the elementary schools are as follows:

1. **TEXTBOOK METHOD.** In using this method the pupils are supplied with copies of a weekly news magazine written especially for the purpose. Good magazines are available for the elementary grades and for the junior high school classes. The members of the class thus have a common basis of selection. Each is supposed to read all or selected parts of the magazine and report in class on his readings. This is, of course, the barest account of the method. Fortunately many teachers use variety and imagination. Committees are appointed, projects worked out, and a vital and enriching experience results from the use of this method when it is properly taught.
2. **PROJECT METHOD.** The project method is handled in a variety of ways. The class may organize as a congress, debating society, forum, club, parliament, or conference. For an activity it may maintain a bulletin board, edit a newspaper, make scrapbooks, write tests, broadcast news, draw cartoons, dramatize events, manage visits, conduct a question box, or write editorials. For handling current events in this manner the class needs a variety of books, newspapers, and magazines. The pupil news magazines are just as useful in this method as they are for the one described above.
3. **LABORATORY METHOD.** This plan may involve all the elements described in the two preceding sections, but theoretically its essential feature is a good supply of materials, such as newspapers, magazines, maps, folders, pictures, clippings, and books. The period is devoted to guided reading and study. The pupils are free to make such reports and carry on such activities as they prefer.
4. **TOPICAL METHOD.** In studying current events by the topical plan the teacher and class divide them into categories, such as



A VARIETY OF MATERIALS, SUCH AS SCHOOL PAPERS AND THE GLOBE, CAN CONTRIBUTE TO THE STUDY OF CURRENT AFFAIRS.



A GREAT VARIETY OF MATERIALS AND ACTIVITIES IS NECESSARY FOR THE GROWING CHILD.



BY DIRECT EXPERIENCE PUPILS LEARN HOW GOODS ARE DISTRIBUTED.



BY DIRECT OBSERVATION CHILDREN CAN LEARN TO APPRECIATE THE VALUE OF CONSERVATION.

Congress, national politics, foreign affairs, commerce, medicine, science, industry, state, local, social, etc. The headings should probably be reconsidered and changed from time to time. A pupil or a committee may volunteer to keep up with one area and to make reports regularly or in accordance with the nature of developments in each area. In this plan too it is naturally a great advantage for each pupil to have a pupil news magazine.

The success of any of these methods depends largely upon the interest which the teacher has in the subject, the kind of equipment available, the freedom of pupil discussion, the wisdom of the selection, and upon all those other factors which make the difference between a live and a dead classroom. The routine reports, written summaries, and other mechanical requirements are not usually successful. By a few searching questions or a brief written test the teacher should discover those who are prepared. When a class is informed, the greatest value is derived from discussion and further research upon disputed or doubtful points.

SUGGESTED PUPIL ACTIVITIES

In vitalizing current events the pupils can make use of some of the following suggested activities.

1. Serve on rotating committees, prepare and give a current events test to the remainder of the class.
2. Using outline maps, prepare spot news maps of the world, the United States, the state, and the city.
3. Report the opinions of a few citizens whom they have interviewed concerning some controversial current development.
4. Prepare a weekly glossary of names, places, and events.
5. Prepare a classbook of cartoons.
6. Prepare a picture book of current happenings.
7. Prepare a list of national or local problems based upon current news items.
8. Maintain a news bulletin board.
9. Edit a class newspaper.
10. Dramatize events.
11. Visit a newspaper office.
12. Collect and organize clippings on a variety of subjects.
13. Plan and present an assembly program of current events.
14. Listen to and analyze radio broadcasts of current events.

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15. Plan a current events match after the manner of a spelling match.
16. Compare two newspapers for accuracy and objectivity.
17. Find statements whose accuracy is open to question and explain how they can be disproved or verified.
18. Make collections of special feature articles on one subject and the columns of a well-known writer.
19. Prepare a list of the events reported in a newspaper and try to rank them in the order of their importance.
20. Prepare a list of debate subjects, materials for which can be secured from current newspapers.

This list may well serve as a reservoir of activities for superior children. The carrying out of some of them would require considerable ability and sustained attention.

MATERIALS FOR CURRENT AFFAIRS

The study of current affairs in the classroom involves the search for materials that are suitable for the various grades. It was recognized from the outset that the direct study of newspapers was impracticable below senior high school, and for many years the magazines made few concessions to young readers.

Over a period of years several persons devoted themselves to providing simply written digests, summaries, and rewritings of events in such a manner as to make them interesting and intelligible. These publications have stood the test of usage and are generally recommended in social studies programs. The following companies publish a series of papers, usually three, for the various grade levels:

American Education Press, Columbus, Ohio, and New York
Civic Education Service, Washington, D.C.
Scholastic Corporation, New York

In addition, *Young America* (Eton Publishing Corporation) and *Pathfinder* (Pathfinder Publishing Co.) have also been favorably received. A new school publication, *Read* (American Education Press, New York), is attempting to popularize the news for students by utilizing many of the appeals and devices used by magazines for adults.

Teachers usually adopt one or more school papers and make them available for pupil use. Like textbooks, they are used in a variety of ways, ranging from complete dependence to incidental reference. As pupils ascend the grade scale they are exposed to the school paper on the next level of difficulty. Before leaving school it is desirable that students receive some guidance in the reading of newspapers.

A program of current affairs should not depend wholly upon school papers. Radio and television programs, booklets, pamphlets, weekly and monthly magazines, spot news maps, news reels, and a variety of other sources are available. Fortunately teachers are thus able to provide the current events program with rich and varied materials.

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21. UTILIZING AUDIO-VISUAL MATERIALS

VALUES OF VISUAL AND AUDITORY MATERIALS

Visual and auditory aids are varied, numerous, and convenient. Most of them can be used to aid teaching and facilitate learning. It therefore seems appropriate to refer to them as either "materials" or "aids," for obviously they are both. The term *visual and auditory aids* refers to still pictures, projected or unprojected; to motion pictures, silent and sound; to television, slides, filmstrips, recordings, transcriptions, graphs, charts, maps, tables, lists, diagrams, dioramas, models, specimens, posters, cartoons, radios, and records. The term also denotes the places and implements through which the aids are utilized, such as blackboards, bulletin boards, projectors, record players, stereoscopes, museums, and collections.

Visual aids supply new experiences and new imagery. While oral descriptions call forth whatever relevant concepts the pupil has already acquired through previous experience, a picture, a model, or a specimen actually extends the limits of experience. The ability to analyze, compare, generalize, and synthesize must rest upon the broad base of experience. If the pupil has had insufficient experience, it is idle to call upon him to deal with abstractions involving such experiences. The basic question which should precede the use of visual aids is, Has the pupil had the necessary experience? If the answer is in the negative, the teacher will in most instances do well to try some type of visual aid.

The young and less intelligent pupils are necessarily limited as to experience. It therefore follows that, holding intelligence constant, the value of visual aids varies inversely with age. It

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also follows that their value varies inversely with intelligence. This analysis furnishes a general principle of guidance in the use of visual aids. The first-grade child may enjoy a sand table; the sixth-grade child will scorn the useless repetition of such an experience. The seventh-grade pupil may enjoy clipping pictures; but the bright student of the eleventh grade will disdain such busy work. Similarly, it follows that on any grade level differentiated assignments may well provide for having slower pupils use more pictorial material while the brighter students are doing more reading.

Visual aids properly used cannot justly be regarded as supplementary learning; they are fundamental. They furnish experience; they facilitate the association of object and word; they save the pupil's time; they provide simple and authentic information; they enrich and extend one's appreciation; they furnish pleasant entertainment; they provide a simplified view of complicated data; they stimulate the imagination; and they develop the pupil's powers of observation. Visual aids may need explanations, but they do not need translators; they speak a universal language of form, color, position, and motion. They constitute one of the royal roads to learning.

ADVANTAGES OF AUDIO-VISUAL MATERIALS

1. **LEARNING AND SENSORY EXPERIENCE.** An adequate background of sensory experience is a prerequisite to all learning. New words and unfamiliar phrases are verbalisms until they are attached to specific elements of one's experience. With understanding comes the ability to visualize the meaning of a word or phrase, to attach sensory experiences to it. Knowing what a cow looks like, how large it is, what sounds it makes, what type of habitat it requires, and what use man makes of it are all essential to understanding the word. Seeing a cow in her natural environment is the direct way for a child to learn these facts. Following a coal miner through his day's work and watching the grading, sorting, and loading of the coal provides direct learning about the coal industry. The advantages of direct experiences to beginners in any field are obvious. It is also obvious, as pointed out in Chapter 6, that many of the facts, events, concepts, and understandings

which are taught in elementary social studies cannot be experienced directly. Even where direct experience can be provided, as in studying the home, the post office, and the store, it must be supplemented by many indirect learning experiences. The closer to reality such vicarious experiences can be made, the more effective they will be.

2. A SUBSTITUTE FOR DIRECT EXPERIENCE. Seeing and hearing representations of objects, events, and processes is an effective substitute for direct experience. When children study events from the past or life in faraway lands, they must use indirect means. The study of their own nation and even their own community also often involves indirect rather than direct experience, and so the pupils must learn new words and new situations. Audio-visual materials facilitate the understanding of new concepts, facts, and symbols.

Pupils in city schools can seldom observe a cow in a typical setting, but the teacher can bring meaning to the word "cow" by showing the sound film "Farm Animals." The children will see the cows being fed, milked, and led to water. They will see how the cows are protected from rain and cold. They will learn how large the average cow is in proportion to a man, for they will see both in the same picture. They will even hear the sounds cows make. Since the film is in black and white, however, the pupils will probably think that all cows are black and white unless the teacher shows colored pictures of brown and red cows. Thus it may be necessary for the teacher to use several different audio-visual aids to create an accurate and effective substitute for a direct learning experience.

Often a vicarious experience, presented with appropriate sensory aids, results in greater and more economical learning than the direct experience which it replaces. If city children should see a cow on a farm, they might fail to observe her as intently as they could in the classroom film. Their attention might be distracted by other phases of farm life. They can hardly stay long enough to see the routine of the entire day, as they do in the film. They cannot make a second trip to verify impressions or settle disputed points, but they can study the film and still pictures as many times as necessary. In making a trip, they spend

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more time in learning the facts than is required by the indirect learning experience.

3. **A SUPPLEMENT TO DIRECT EXPERIENCE.** Even when it is possible for children to have a direct experience, it must be supplemented by vicarious learning. Primary pupils may visit the corner mailbox to mail a letter and see it collected by a postman. They may visit the post office to see letters taken one step further on their journey. They will learn still more about the postal system if these direct learning experiences are followed by a study of such a film as "A Letter to Grandmother" (Coronet, 2 reels). They will see a letter carried from the corner mailbox to its destination on a rural route, with each step of the journey clearly shown. Then they will follow a parcel post package back along the same route, from grandmother to grandchild. Study of the film will make the class trips to the mailbox and local post office more meaningful, as well as add to the information gained from such trips.

4. **MOTIVATION THROUGH AUDIO-VISUAL MATERIALS.** Children, like adults, enjoy looking at pictures, going to movies, listening to the radio, and watching television. The pleasurable associations built up in connection with picture-book, film, and radio programs carry over to the classroom use of the same mediums. Audio-visual materials in the classroom have the same vividness, clarity, and dramatic appeal. These qualities can be used to hold attention and stimulate new interests and activities. Motivation is high in the list of values to be derived from the use of audio-visual aids.

5. **A BASIC SOURCE FOR THE PRIMARY GRADES.** In the primary grades most of the child's learning is necessarily based on sources other than the printed page. While the skills of reading and writing are being taught, much school time is spent in oral activities. Social studies concepts presented during these early years may be developed largely through pictures, recordings, motion pictures, and other audio-visual aids.

6. **AN EFFECTIVE AID FOR THE POOR READER.** The pupil who cannot read well labors under a tremendous handicap if the textbook is his only source of social studies information. He cannot participate in discussions and other class activities because he has little

to contribute. He does not succeed in social studies because he lacks the necessary skill of reading. The effects of continual failure are serious; the teacher should provide every pupil with opportunities for success.

The poor reader is often capable of remembering and interpreting the facts he gains through pictures, moving pictures, and the radio. He sometimes becomes an active participant if he can learn history or geography through such aids and thus escape the strain of wrestling with abstract symbols on the printed page. Constant use of the audio-visual materials provides him with such opportunities and gives him a stock of experiences and meanings which will contribute to his development in reading.

7. MORE EFFICIENT LEARNING THROUGH AUDIO-VISUAL MATERIALS. Many experiments in recent years have proved the effectiveness of audio-visual aids. Two principles have been definitely established. First, pupils learn more rapidly when audio-visual aids are used. Fewer explanations and repetitions are needed. Second, pupils who have studied with the aid of audio-visual materials remember more of the facts presented and remember them longer. While these principles apply to learning in general, many of the experiments have dealt directly with geography, history, and other social studies in the elementary school.

USING AUDIO-VISUAL MATERIALS

1. USES OF AUDIO-VISUAL AIDS. Audio-visual materials may be used effectively for various purposes and at various stages in the teaching process. Pictures, films, models, or recordings can be employed to introduce a new topic or unit of work. The motivation values of the aids are stressed when they are used for this purpose. The same audio-visual materials may frequently be used for direct teaching of facts and relationships. Probably direct teaching is the usage which will be expanded most rapidly in the near future, as more teachers realize the valuable results which can be obtained and master the techniques of instruction through sensory materials. Audio-visual aids may also be used for illustration of specific points, for review and summary and, occasionally, for testing.

Some sensory materials are obviously better adapted for one

use than for another. Many pictures, films, models, maps, and recordings, however, can be used in more than one connection.

2. AUDIO-VISUAL MATERIALS REQUIRE EFFORT. The impressive results which are obtained through audio-visual materials do not come automatically. They must be studied, not merely presented. Effective teaching with any type of material and in any stage of the learning process demands planning by the teacher, motivation of the pupil, presentation of the material, discussion by pupil and teacher, drawing of conclusions, and some type of evaluation. Effective use of audio-visual aids demands that these same steps be carried out.

3. CHOOSING APPROPRIATE MATERIALS. In making a selection of sensory materials, the teacher should consider three major criteria. What type will best serve the purpose? If motion is necessary to present the concept, the use of a moving picture is implied. Unless sound will add to the clarification, a silent film may be chosen. If motion is not necessary, still pictures or models may be used. Black and white representation may be inadequate and unsatisfactory, in which case a colored one can be substituted.

The second criterion is to select the aid that is neither too difficult nor too simple; in other words, one that is well graded to the maturity, interests, and abilities of the pupils. Past experience is some guide to what will be effective, and the nature of the unit with its range of activities will also be indicative.

Balancing the audio-visual program as a whole is the third problem in selecting material. Using the same type of sensory material continually and limiting that which is used to one or two types produces monotony. On the other hand, using too many different materials at one time lessens their effectiveness.

In order to decide whether proposed materials meet these criteria, the teacher must examine the pictures or graphs, preview the films, or hear the recordings which she is considering. Knowing beforehand the character and action of the sensory aid is essential. This principle may seem obvious, but a study of current practices in the use of audio-visual materials shows that it is too often ignored. Most teachers would not assign a textbook lesson without knowing what the pages contain; neither should they

show a film or play a recording without knowing more than the title.

4. PLANNING THE USE OF AUDIO-VISUAL MATERIALS. Too frequently teachers have previewed films and made the decision as to their showing without securing the aid, advice, or consent of pupils. Teacher-pupil planning in this area seems to have lagged behind its application in general. The cost of the material, the assumed instructional value, and the inconvenience of enlisting pupil participation in advance may explain but do not justify this neglect. Certainly the pupils could and would raise pertinent questions, and their participation need not prevent the teacher from developing all the values which she sees in the film, picture, or object. Thus the successful use of a sensory aid involves pupil realization of its value, plans for its utilization, effective display, ample discussion, and a subsequent interweaving of the results into the larger pattern of the unit, topic, or problem.

5. PRESENTATION. The presentation of an aid should be deliberate and unhurried. Obviously, the picture, film, or object should be visible and audible. If possible, it is desirable to pause occasionally for questions and comments. The presentation is more effective if an air of relaxation and appreciation prevails. Fear of a subsequent test may mar the pleasure and lessen the value of the aid.

6. EVALUATION. Discussion and evaluation may well follow immediately after the use of the audio-visual aid. Errors or misconceptions can be corrected or clarified. Formal testing can be used or it can be postponed until the end of the unit. The teacher should evaluate her selection of the aid and the method of presentation, and obtain the reactions and opinions of the pupils. She might well file a notation of her experience and make a recommendation as to the further use of the specific aid.

UTILIZING PICTURES

Still pictures constitute one of the most valuable sensory aids for the elementary social studies teacher. They have most of the teaching values associated with audio-visual materials in general, and each type of still picture has special values of its own.

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Unprojected stills or flat pictures include black and white prints, photographs, line drawings, paintings, colored pictures, and variations of each of these. By using an opaque projector, flat pictures can be shown on a screen in greatly enlarged size. Other forms of projected still pictures include glass slides, film slides, and filmstrips.

Modern reproduction methods have made clear, vivid stills or flat pictures available on almost every topic in elementary school social studies. Home life, the community, faraway lands, peoples, and other scenes are available. Flat pictures are a flexible aid; many of them can be used at every stage of the teaching process. They can be examined as often as necessary to bring full understanding. Individual children can work with them, each child at his own place. Pictures have a special appeal for elementary pupils. They are cheap and convenient, being obtainable either by purchase or by consistent clipping from newspapers and magazines.

Projected or unprojected, a still picture should meet certain basic standards to be an acceptable aid for use in the social studies:

1. *Difficulty.* Appropriate for pupils of the grade level involved; not bewilderingly complex, nor too simple to interest the group.
2. *Significance.* Presents a process, event, or some point of importance. Pictures of monuments, buildings, etc. are likely to have little significance without extensive explanation by the teacher, and are often not worth the time required.
3. *Accuracy.* Gives a correct general impression rather than emphasizing the picturesque or the exceptional.
4. *Proportion.* Contains some object (as a man) which will give perspective to the objects shown in the picture.
5. *Clarity.* Distinct and free of blemishes.
6. *Attractiveness.* Pleasing in arrangement and use of color.
7. *Caption.* Explains, identifies, or interprets the picture.
8. *Interest.* Is of essential interest to pupils because it provides information which helps to solve some problem on which they are working or raises new questions and ideas which contribute to further study.
9. *Size.* For group study without projection a picture should be large enough to be seen from all parts of the room; for indi-

vidual study it should be small enough for children to handle easily.

Still pictures can be used as the basis for innumerable activities in the social studies classroom. Each one in the following list is capable of variation, and each will suggest others.

1. To introduce a new topic, place a few pertinent pictures so the pupils will see them as they enter the room. Their reactions will help to introduce the new topic or unit.
2. Suggest that the pupils develop a list of questions for which the picture supplies answers. Place the questions on the chalkboard or clip them to the picture.
3. For review, exhibit pictures without captions; let the class name them and justify the titles; or use as a test.
4. Let the class make illustrations for the unit. Still pictures of various types should be available for consultation, not copying. This activity will result in greater discernment.

Pictures and diagrams which have been reproduced on glass slides can be shown with a lantern-slide projector. A picture gains in depth and vividness when it is projected on a screen; and since it is greatly enlarged, the pupils can study and discuss it as a group.

Many pictures dealing with social studies topics are available in this medium, and pupils enjoy making illustrative slides of their own. While commercially prepared slides are relatively costly, the materials for making them are inexpensive. The same slide can be used repeatedly. The simplicity of operating the lantern-slide projector and the vividness of the picture make this sensory aid extremely useful in the social studies class.

The filmstrip projector is used to reproduce a series of scenes, drawings, or diagrams which have been placed in order on a strip of film. A filmstrip attachment can be added to the lantern-slide projector. Both the projector and the filmstrip are relatively cheap, light, and convenient. Numerous social studies materials are available in this medium, and amateur photographers can easily prepare their own filmstrips at little expense.

By means of an opaque projector, flat pictures can be projected in greatly enlarged size. Pictures from magazines and books as well as separate ones can be shown. The room must be much

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darker for the successful use of an opaque projector than is necessary for showing lantern slides. The projector is large and heavy, and is more difficult to operate than other types of projectors. If the conditions required for successful use can be achieved, however, it is obvious that the social studies teacher can locate a maximum of opaque projection materials with a minimum of time, effort, and expense.

STEREOSCOPES. The vividness of a three-dimensional reproduction can be achieved through the use of the stereograph and its projection instrument, the stereoscope. Its three-dimensional effect is obtained by mounting side by side two pictures of the same object, taken from different angles. The double picture becomes one when viewed through the stereoscope. Stereographs are inexpensive, available in a variety of scenes, and simple to use. Since each individual must handle the stereoscope, it is not suitable for group instruction. With a minimum of directions, questions, and notes, however, individual pupils can make excellent use of stereographs.

UTILIZING MOTION PICTURES

The motion picture added a very important element to visual instruction. Soon after the First World War schools began to make extensive use of it, and since 1931 they have used sound pictures. Within the last few years television has been introduced into some schools.

Research and experimentation justify the conclusion that motion pictures make some very definite contributions to teaching and learning. They have the following advantages or merits.

ADVANTAGES OF MOTION PICTURES

1. Provide motivation
2. Extend the range of experience
3. Aid the poor reader and slow learner especially
4. Are highly valuable for introducing new materials
5. Can clarify processes and procedures
6. Increase the amount learned within a specified time
7. Strengthen retention
8. Clarify perceptions, concepts, and understanding
9. Encourage further reading and study

10. Produce more and better group discussions
11. Reinforce other methods of learning

The general principles for using visual aids apply to motion pictures. In addition, other precautions must be taken. The teacher should view the film and decide upon its fitness before presenting it to the class. Sometimes a crude scene, a ribald joke, or an irrelevant portion will tend to vitiate the entire film. Sometimes the teacher will discover that the picture stresses other factors than those on which he seeks help.

The following characteristics may serve as guides to selecting good films:

1. It contributes to the development of the unit.
2. The photography is clear and artistic.
3. The sound is appropriate and easily understood.
4. The film is authentic, free from inaccuracies, misinterpretations, outdated materials, and propaganda.
5. The vocabulary and subject matter are properly graded for the class.
6. The acting is adequate.
7. The film is interesting to the children.
8. A sufficient number of activities can be developed from the film to justify its use.

Investigators of the effectiveness of films are agreed in saying that oral instruction and discussion add materially to their value. The classroom setting seems also to influence the outcomes, for the films exhibited in classrooms are viewed more seriously and under more normal conditions than prevail in the larger group that would gather in the auditorium.

The mechanical problems of presenting films are also greater than with most types of visual aids. The obtaining of the film, the setting up of the projection machine, and the timing of the exhibition require that the teacher exercise great care in planning his work. Even though the school owns both the projector and the film, the proper presentation requires planning, which includes previous instruction and subsequent discussion.

Having selected and shown a suitable film, the teacher should be solicitous that it yield its maximum value. The discussion and evaluation that follow can largely determine the permanent

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reactions of the pupils. Possibly the following suggestions may prove helpful:

1. Notice examples of basic processes such as interdependence, conservation, conflict, and cooperation. Relate them to the unit.
2. Classify the actors as to their social or antisocial roles.
3. Detect inconsistencies of statement, time, place, etc.
4. Select for discussion the difficult words or complicated behavior of actors.
5. Emphasize a few major aspects and omit many details.
6. Encourage frank appraisals by the pupils.
7. Ask for suggestions as to the nature of the next films.
8. Utilize ideas and scenes for costumes, drawings, and dramatizations.
9. List its good features and its shortcomings.
10. Summarize its value.

In order to use motion pictures effectively, both the 16mm. sound films and filmstrips, it is desirable that teachers keep informed concerning the best techniques and procedures of presentation and that they choose films critically and carefully. Four steps in carrying out this purpose may be indicated: (1) Read a specific guide such as William H. Hartley's leaflet *How to Use a Motion Picture*, 1951 (National Council for the Social Studies), or his *Guide to Audio-Visual Materials for Elementary School Social Studies*, 1950 (Rambler Press, New York); the *Eighteenth Yearbook: Audio-Visual Materials and Methods in the Social Studies* (1947); Edgar Dale's *Audio-Visual Methods in Teaching* (Dryden Press, 1946); and William H. Hartley's *Selected Films for American History and Problems* (Teachers College, Columbia University, 1940. Supplement, 1945). (2) Secure the latest catalogues of teaching films from the major distributors listed at the end of the chapter. (3) Secure information concerning local distributors, such as the extension division of a university, the public library, or commercial rental agencies. (4) Keep informed of the latest developments by reading the monthly section "Sight and Sound" in *Social Education*. The teacher who follows this four-point program will be informed concerning motion pictures.

UTILIZING AUDITORY AIDS

The phenomenal development of the radio from crystal sets to the complicated mechanisms of today and from a few hundred sets in the early 1920's to about 75,000,000 in 1952 has resulted in its utilization by schools. While it introduces no new method the radio does facilitate the widespread distribution of the words of capable speakers. The exacting time limits, the size of the audience, and the solicitude of the sponsor usually guarantee careful preparation, effective delivery, and the selection of interesting materials. One of the most encouraging aspects is the remarkable increase in the number of programs which can accurately be called educational, and particularly of those which are useful in teaching the social studies.

Some classes in New York City used radio programs in the classroom as early as 1923. Later in the decade of the twenties the Ohio School of the Air popularized the use of the radio in the schools. Several large cities and many smaller cities now produce radio programs designed specifically for classes.

The radio can serve a number of purposes whether the class utilizes national or local programs. The students can hear the President's message to Congress, the speech of a prominent foreign visitor, the news of battles, and reports of the latest events from all parts of the country. Transcriptions of many programs can be secured and used at hours which are convenient for the classes. Thus radio programs can enrich the daily lesson, furnish vivid contacts with the world, and keep teachers and students up to date. Under the careful guidance of the teacher the programs can be used to train the students to listen with attention and discrimination. Subsequent discussions can be used to develop critical and constructive reactions. It is possible that the programs tend to develop better standards of speech and pronunciation, although some affectations seem to gather respectability, thus introducing a kind of banal artificiality and uniformity. The enormous percentage of time devoted to advertising is at once a reflection upon the tastes of advertisers and a tribute to the long-suffering patience of the American public.

The growing use of radio transcriptions by discs, wire, and tape

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recording promises to solve the problem of scheduling, for classes can reproduce almost any broadcast at any time in any classroom at the cost of a few cents. In Minnesota the State Department of Education is carrying on an extensive program for the schools which involves only the transportation costs of the recordings. In addition to radio programs the voices of famous persons, musical productions from various parts of the world, and dramatizations of great moments in history are available.

Now that recorders and tape machines are relatively inexpensive, some schools are supplying them for classroom use. Pupils are highly motivated when they realize that a permanent record is to be made of their report, dramatization, or group activity.

Existing radio programs may be classified in three groups: (1) commercial programs, many of which are excellent and many more of which are marred by the whining insistence of salesmen; (2) educational programs, such as those sponsored by the National Education Association, colleges and universities, and civic organizations; (3) programs which are prepared by educators specifically for class instruction, such as the broadcasts in Chicago and Cleveland. The teacher and class can utilize some programs from each group, but the educational ones deserve most frequent attention.

Certain steps should be taken to insure the best returns from broadcasts. The program should be selected carefully; its appropriateness and its probable contribution should be examined. The radio material should be integrated with the work of the classroom. The age of the group should be considered in selecting programs. The class should be given the background of the broadcast and should set up some plan for purposeful listening. The program should be followed with such supplementary work as will insure its permanent value.

The radio should be regarded as an ally and not as a substitute teacher. The difficulties of using radio programs are many, and even when they are overcome one must not expect too much. The programs should be used occasionally for specific purposes rather than regularly as a habit. The radio, like the motion picture, has a contribution to make and teachers should make use of its best values.

Television is the latest arrival among the aids to teaching and learning the social studies. It is a combination of radio and motion pictures. Its possibilities are almost beyond conjecture, but its immediate future is clouded by the same commercial necessities that have afflicted radio for so many years. Some schools have already introduced television, others are planning to do so, and still others are waiting for improved mechanisms and better programs with more definite educational values.

THE IMPORTANCE OF GLOBES

A globe is a model of the earth on which there is a map. This map with its curved surface is a more accurate representation of the earth's surface than can be shown on a flat map. For adults a globe simplifies the mysteries of sphericity, inclination, rotation, latitude, and longitude, and for children it constitutes the best possible introduction to such concepts. While the youngest pupil concedes that the world is round, he has difficulty in understanding the fact. Constant experience with a globe finally brings conviction and understanding.

The globe should be used as the point of departure in studying the earth. Simplified globes which provide a graduated approach to the study of the earth are available. From them the pupil can derive ideas of direction, the relative areas of land and water, the number, size, and shape of the hemispheres, the function of the equator, and in the upper grades, the *necessity* of latitude and longitude.

The use of the globe should be frequent and prolonged. When other types of maps are introduced they should be related to the globe; their inevitable inadequacies will thus become apparent. One should never graduate from the globe, and while it is still the principal geographic tool one should acquire an understanding of such concepts as

1. Antarctic Circle	7. International Date Line
2. Arctic Circle	8. island
3. axis	9. latitude
4. continent	10. longitude
5. direction	11. meridian
6. hemisphere	12. pole

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13. prime meridian	17. Tropic of Cancer
14. rotation	18. Tropic of Capricorn
15. season	19. zone
16. symbols	

The globe can be used as the source for answers to dozens of questions concerning direction, size, and location. In fact, such questions can become a game with the globe as the teacher. What state in the United States is nearest Africa? Which is larger, Greenland or South America? Rank the continents in the order of their size. What European city is in the same latitude as New York?

The basic problem in making and in understanding maps is to present a curved surface upon a flat projection. The rounded surface of the earth can be represented accurately and clearly only on a globe. Thus its early and continued use in connection with all maps will accustom pupils to the necessary distortion which accompanies flat maps without instilling erroneous notions of their characteristics. A globe is the key to geography.

THE NATURE OF MAPS

A map is a representation of a part of the earth's surface. It is a condensed and complicated form of communication. Imagine the difficulty of trying to describe *in words* the eastern shore line of the United States, the shape of Kentucky, or the relative positions of Lake Michigan and the Gulf of Mexico. Try to put *into words* all the information that can be gleaned from one relatively simple map. Even a conscientious experimenter will desist in despair after a few minutes. While maps are vivid and stimulating to one who knows how to read them, they are not self-revealing.

The successful use of maps requires the acquisition of new skills and their prolonged application to various kinds of maps. No teacher expects proficiency in reading until the pupil has had careful instruction and extensive practice, yet many pupils try to utilize maps without acquiring the necessary skills. Repeated studies have shown that many pupils do not know the continents, zones, map symbols, latitude, or longitude. These failures are due to premature presentation and to the lack of map readi-

ness. Fortunately these shortcomings are being recognized and overcome. Difficult aspects, such as latitude and longitude, are being postponed until the upper grades. Teachers are introducing globes and maps much more gradually and are stressing the acquisition of the necessary skills.

A map is not a picture, but a representation. It should not be regarded as the reality, but as a symbol of the reality. There is apparently no reason to regret the fact that the word England calls forth the visual image of a map. Probably such a symbol is as useful as any other, and it apparently functions inevitably unless the student has visited and learned to know the area mentioned. Even when he knows the area well he is likely to substitute the map for the reality if the area is mentioned only in a casual connection; and for practical purposes there seems to be no reason why a person's thoughts should run from Cleveland to Cincinnati, from Toledo to Marietta, and over all the intervening spaces, merely because someone has pronounced the word "Ohio." Such mental vagabondage would destroy continuity of thought. The practice of visualizing *maps* instead of *areas* is for most purposes satisfactory, provided the pupil does not confuse the two.

MAP TECHNIQUES

Maps serve their functions by making use of a variety of devices, techniques, and symbols. The most frequently used techniques should be recognized, learned, and appreciated. The following are the basic ones which characterize many maps.¹

1. DIRECTIONS. A map is plotted on a grid, the network of parallels and meridians that we see on the globe and by which we can accurately locate every tiny place on the earth. These lines serve another purpose: they show us true direction. Meridians are true north-south lines. North is always toward the north pole along a meridian line. South is toward the south pole along a meridian line. Parallels, which on the globe intersect meridians at right angles, are true east-west lines. Understanding these facts will insure correct reading of direction on the globe and on

¹ For parts of this and the following section I am indebted to Denoyer-Geppert Company who gave me permission to utilize my *Teaching Social Studies Through Maps*. Chicago, 1949.

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all maps including the polar projections. Due to much use of the Mercator map in the past, many of us have learned north as toward the top of the map, east toward the right, and so forth, which holds for the rectangular Mercator grid; but if you will watch the grid on each map you use, you will see the sound basis for reading direction by the meridians and the parallels. On a polyconic projection the center of the United States may appear to sag southward below the corners of Maine and Washington. Close attention to the parallel, however, will show that the northernmost part of the United States is a little projection of Minnesota.

2. DISTANCE. Distance on maps can be indicated in one of three ways: (1) by a statement in words, such as "one inch to a hundred miles"; (2) by a scale divided into convenient fractions representing so many miles; or (3) by a fraction such as $1/100$ or $1/500,000,000$. In this fractional scale the numerator represents the distance on the map and the denominator represents the number of the same units of actual distance on the earth. Thus the fraction expresses the ratio of the map to actuality. In addition to these three devices for indicating distance, some maps indicate a time-scale, such as "New York to Los Angeles, 9 hours." For advanced students the conversion of degrees of latitude and longitude offers an excellent exercise.

3. AREA. Area is, of course, the result of multiplying dimensions. The area of two continents or states can be compared if they are both on the same map or if they are on maps drawn to the same scale. Failure to remember this precaution has caused many persons to assume that Utah is about the size of Ohio. This comparison can be made on projections which do not distort area. It can be made on a Mercator Projection only if the two areas are in the same latitude and are relatively small in extent; otherwise the higher latitude area will appear to be larger than it actually is. For accurate comparisons of larger areas, a large globe should also be used, and areas checked by figures from an atlas.

4. COLORS. The use of colors by map-makers has enabled them to show a great variety of features, events, and data. By colors they indicate altitudes, product regions, political divisions, climatic belts, population density, racial groups, political leanings,

natural products, and an endless variety of data. However, the most effective maps limit the variety of data on any one map.

5. SYMBOLS. Numerous symbols are used to show the location, extent, and arrangement of various kinds of data. The simplest and easiest symbols are those which picture the data, such as a cow for herds, a soldier for an army, a smokestack for factories, and buildings for cities. Such realistic symbols have severe limitations in actual use, and conventional symbols must be explained from the map legend and their reading carefully taught. For example a wavy line represents a river, a cross line a waterfall, and a hachure a mountain. Still more abstract are various stamps for cities, unbroken red lines for railroads, broken ones for steamer routes, dotted ones for caravan routes, and purple lines for airways.

FUNCTIONS OF MAPS

Maps serve a variety of functions. They are a means of recording information for permanence, for clarification, for comparison, and for communication. Many maps and graphs are made to bring into sharp focus relevant facts and patterns. A superintendent wants a map of his school district indicating the homes from which the pupils come; a newspaper wants a map of its circulation area.

The principal function of school maps is to reveal geographic, economic, climatic, political, historical, and other data for the sake of the pupils. Maps present condensed information of areas too large to be viewed or comprehended directly; consequently they are not only aids to learning; they are the only means by which factors can be presented for learning. The most basic functions are to show:

1. LOCATION. Cities and states, mountains and valleys, farm areas and industrial centers, bays and capes, deserts and plains, railroads and highways, schools and churches, forts and battle-fields, and dozens of other kinds of phenomena can be located by means of a map. Location is shown with respect to latitude and longitude, with respect to political boundaries, and most important of all with respect to other phenomena of the same kind or of different kinds. Thus a map answers the basic question of "where?"

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2. ARRANGEMENT. Closely related to location is the pattern, place, shape, or arrangement of the phenomena. Thus a map of the United States shows that Florida is in the extreme southeastern corner; that Kansas is east of Colorado; that the Illinois River flows into the Mississippi; that the Allegheny Mountains extend from northeast to southwest; that Chesapeake Bay extends into the heart of Maryland. So real is the presentation of the pattern or arrangement that the map is a kind of "picture" of North America, Pennsylvania, the West Indies, or whatever area or place is under consideration.

3. RELATIONSHIPS. Maps show numerous relationships beyond those of location, shape, and area. The harbor at the mouth of the Hudson gives one a kind of explanation for the location and existence of New York. The mountains which surround Nevada explain its arid climate. The waterfalls along the course of a river show why industries grew up in those places. The location of the Rocky Mountains explains the devious routes which the railroads, highways, and airplanes follow. Every detailed map presents phenomena which reveal a great number of relationships. Not all these are apparent to the untrained eye; in fact, only the trained student can see and appreciate fully this function of a map. But when he is trained, the map presents numerous relationships. It is a maze of interrelationships.

4. VARIED DATA. Maps are used to present a tremendous variety of data. They may show types of vegetation, rainfall, temperature, racial origins, political units, election returns, population density, prevalence of diseases, size of family, etc. In fact, it is difficult to mention any kind of data which cannot be charted and mapped. Thus a major function of maps is to present varied data for ready and vivid comprehension. In such instances the map is both a basic language and an interpreter. It not only conveys its message; it also dramatizes and explains it.

5. CHANGE. One of the most frequent uses of maps is to present geographic, social, economic, and political changes. In performing this function the map is colored or hatched to show "before" and "after"; or two or more dates are used; or the changes are shown on a succession of maps, or by means of insets, or by the use of symbols. Thus the movement of peoples, with dates, can

be shown by lines or arrows as originating in one area, following certain routes, and terminating in another area. By such means the growth of a nation, the development of an industry, the exchange of goods, the marches of armies, the spread of a crop (e.g. cotton), and countless other changes can be clearly, definitively, and attractively presented on maps.

6. VICARIOUS EXPERIENCE. Maps as a source of vicarious experience deserve mention. For the pupil who is prepared, a map is an invitation to travel — to see, to learn, and to understand. It provides endless entertainment and enlightenment. Who has not been thrilled by the study of a road map? The realization itself is often no keener than the anticipation which the map affords. And the greater the knowledge and insight the greater is the response to the map. It stands ready to communicate with those who have learned its language.

MAP MAGIC

Wouldst thou view the wide blue sea
Or mountains high and valleys deep?
With maps at hand you need not sail
But see the world in one wide sweep.

Wouldst thou live on great wide plains
Midst fields of waving, golden wheat?
Wouldst thou look into the mine
Or feel the smelter's molten heat?

Wouldst thou know where Ceylon lies,
Where Persian Gulf its waters spread?
Wouldst thou see where Plato walked,
Where Cheops reigned, where Caesar bled?

Wouldst thou go where Pickett charged
Or ride at night with Paul Revere?
Wouldst thou tread the Oregon Trail
Or o'er the trace with John Sevier?

On maps of various shades and hues
You travel far through time and space.
While on this far-flung trip you go
You yet abide the self-same place.

KINDS OF MAPS

There is no single, logical basis for a classification of maps. With respect to the purpose for which they are made, maps may be classified according to the data which they present, such as roads, rainfall, elevation, population, history, etc. With respect to the manner or form of presentation, they may be classified as blackboard, textbook, atlas, globe, wall, or original maps. With respect to fullness or the extent of the data which they present, maps vary from those that present many data to those that present some one feature, such as elevation, or even to those that are mere outlines within which data are to be charted. With respect to artistic or material composition, maps may be printed, etched, or drawn, and may vary from black-and-white to multicolored. It is clearly apparent, then, that the various kinds of maps cannot be logically divided and described, and that whatever categories are set up are not mutually exclusive but overlap and supplement one another in a most confusing manner. All these bases — purpose, form of presentation, fullness, and artistic composition — are, however, important to the teacher. Maps must be evaluated in the light of each of these bases.

The maps in textbooks and supplementary references have the advantage of convenience and pertinency. The pupil can scarcely escape seeing them, and their relation to the context is usually obvious. The black-and-white map that is designed to show one or two significant facts is perhaps the easiest type to understand. It is widely used and deserves to be used even more extensively. It is especially adapted to showing the distribution of products, political districts, and important historical boundaries or scenes. This type of map is inexpensive, and can thus be used with great frequency. Even in a reduced size it presents its unmistakable message.

In spite of its difficulty and complexity the colored map that presents a multitude of detail is also a necessary aid. It has to serve many purposes, and consequently presents a crowded and sometimes unattractive appearance.¹ For several years such

¹ Teachers are very justly critical of wall maps that present too many data and are confusing to read. The cure is entirely a financial matter. Publishers

maps were printed in such deep colors as partially to obscure some of the detail, but within recent years the engravers and printers have discovered that lighter colors facilitate use and at the same time furnish sufficient demarcation between the various areas. A big general map of Europe is a necessary aid to the student in enabling him to grasp the relationships of the countries, and to appreciate the sizes and locations of the various countries and areas.

Pictorial maps that show such varied features as potatoes, log cabins, trains, fish, mechanics, and motion picture studios are growing in popularity. Pictorial maps have long been popular in the field of literature; they are becoming equally popular in the social studies. They make a special appeal to young readers and seem well designed to deepen and clarify everyone's understanding.

Wall maps on stands or rollers are particularly useful for group study and class reviews. Their size is an additional merit, for the pointer enables the pupil or teacher to designate the feature under discussion for the benefit of the whole class, thus avoiding the delay and confusion incident to utilizing maps individually. Wall maps provide help for the student who is reporting and needs to refer to a place, route, or area, both for his own sake and for the benefit of the other pupils. Fortunately several excellent sets are available, some of which are pictorial as well as political and economic.

MAP EXERCISES

In the primary grades pupils begin to develop map skills by making simple maps relating to their experiences. Working with the teacher, they start with simple diagrams that show the location of the seats and furnishings in the classroom. They may make a map of the schoolyard, of a city block, of a neighboring park, or of their trip to the grocery store. Basic concepts of location and direction are thus initiated. Gradually their map-making and map-reading experiences may be extended. Mod-

would be willing to present only a few features and thus produce more maps. As long as schools buy sets of only 24 or 36 instead of 200, however, the maps will continue to be crowded with detail.

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ern textbooks provide carefully graded materials and activities through which elementary children may properly expand their knowledge and understanding of map symbols and map interpretation:

The following exercises are designed, when spread over an extended period, to develop map skills by finding answers to specific questions. A large wall map of the United States is the equipment needed.

1. Identify and locate the legend.
2. Explain the purpose behind the use of a large number of colors. Point out, however, that in this particular map, there is no relationship between the states shown in yellow, for example, except the accident of their being shown in the same color. The coloring here simply sets off one state from another.
3. Identify each symbol and point out two examples of its use on the map.
4. On the basis of the symbols decide which is larger: Ft. Worth or Dallas, Columbus or Milwaukee, Detroit or Pittsburgh, Canton or Sandusky.
5. How are state capitals identified?
6. By inspection select the three largest states in descending order of size. The fourth largest can probably not be identified by inspection.
7. By inspection select the three smallest states in ascending order of size.
8. What is the westernmost port on the Great Lakes? What is the largest city on the Great Lakes?
9. Name five cities on the Mississippi which have a population of over 200,000.
10. What is the largest city in up-state New York?
11. Which state has the most cities of over 100,000 population?
12. Name two tributaries of the Colorado River.
13. In what state does the Missouri River rise?
14. Trace the course of the Arkansas River.
15. Find ten instances in which a river serves as the boundary between two states.
16. Which body of water drains the largest area — the Great Lakes, the Gulf of Mexico, or the Pacific Ocean?

17. What is the significance of the red dotted line which runs through four of the Great Lakes?
18. Explain why the Tennessee River is so broad.
19. By using the scale of miles ascertain the approximate distance from Minneapolis to Milwaukee; the width of Arizona from east to west; and the length of the Wabash River.
20. Describe a circle around St. Louis with a radius of 100 miles. How many cities are located within this circle?
21. What city is located 90° west longitude and 35° north latitude?
22. What is the latitude and the longitude of Los Angeles?
23. The meridians of longitude are nearer together in Montana than they are in New Mexico. How can one know this without measuring?
24. The latitude of San Francisco is about $37\frac{1}{2}^{\circ}$. How can one ascertain this?
25. What is the longitude of Denver?
26. In what state is the northernmost part of the United States? The southernmost part?
27. Which is farther east: Reno, Nevada, or Los Angeles, California?
28. In what direction is Atlanta from Cincinnati?
29. By using the scale of miles determine which is larger: Kansas or Pennsylvania, Colorado or Wyoming.
30. Sketch a state on the blackboard and ask the pupils to identify it. Repeat this exercise for as many states as can easily be identified. Being a perfect rectangle except for the indentation on the northeastern corner, Kansas is a good state to use as a beginning.
31. Ask the pupils to sketch states and have other pupils identify them. Start by asking pupils to draw outline maps while looking at the map. After a few such exercises ask them to draw particular states when the map is covered.
32. Ask the pupils to call off the names of the states which touch the Mississippi.
33. After some experience ask the pupils to name the states separated by the Ohio River. Have the map covered.
34. Point out three instances on this map in which topography is indicated. What means is used?

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35. Notice the Alaska inset. Using 69 miles for a degree, compute how much farther north Fairbanks is than San Francisco; how much farther north Sitka is than New York City.
36. Notice the inset of Panama. Colon is directly south of what Pennsylvania city?
37. Measure the length of the Panama Canal on the main inset. Check its accuracy by measuring it again on the enlarged inset within the main inset.

One other exercise of paramount importance should be mentioned, namely, the construction of original maps. One student drew a map that showed the states that had produced Presidents; another, a map of his town; another, a map showing the states that had contributed to the population of his own state; another, one of his father's farm; another, a map that indicated the lakes that contained bass; another, a map of the houses of the pupils. There is scarcely any limit to the possibilities of rearranging or discovering materials and presenting the results in maps.

SPECIMENS AND MODELS

For a sense of reality and for the promotion of understanding no kind of aid can surpass the thing itself. In the social studies there is an abundance of objects and specimens. The physical environment supplies the realities of geography, the economic processes that are observed by the children supply a host of concrete materials, and museums collect numerous relics that vivify the past, distant places, and various cultures.

Illustrative of the physical environment are the fields, hills, lakes, streams, winds, temperatures, directions, and all the realities of the sun, moon, clouds, and stars. Illustrative of our economic life are money, checks, food, clothing, houses, furniture, and thousands of other goods. Illustrative of our social and cultural life are books, art, pictures, toys, dolls, jewelry, and ornaments. Illustrative of the past are relics, weapons, letters, newspapers, utensils, tools, and the thousands of objects with which our museums are filled. All these realities convey their messages, reveal their utility, and indicate how man is using or has used them.

Building a school museum is a worth-while project for elementary social studies classes. It is an activity with high motivation value. If its entries are properly selected and systematically arranged, it soon becomes a valuable adjunct to the social studies classroom. Children are eager collectors, and when collecting for a purpose they become even more enthusiastic. Attics and basements will yield objects of surprising variety and value. Patrons are often glad to give or lend specimens for use in a particular unit, and to have them listed in a permanent record. Many industrial firms supply schools with samples of their product in different stages of manufacture. Museums and commercial agencies are other sources of models and specimens. Children can make simple models as part of their class study. In order to build or shape a model or specimen correctly, the pupil must obtain a clear understanding of the original. Thus he may be led to a closer study than other types of exercises provide. Construction exercises must be used with care, however, for the time required may be out of proportion to the learning involved, or the activity may be lacking in meaning to the child.

Objects, models, and specimens can be used in a variety of ways.

1. The pupils can collect and arrange a few specimens illustrative of the current unit.
2. Provide opportunity for dramatic play, utilizing the pertinent objects, for example, dolls, toys, and costumes.
3. A class committee can arrange a diorama-type display, utilizing objects pertinent to the unit; i.e., arrange models and specimens on a small stage enclosed in a box — the front side cut away, the back provided with a setting appropriate for the objects. Excellent for geography and history is to show costumes, houses, products, methods of work, types of landscape in different lands and at different times.
4. Pupils should be encouraged to discuss objects and evaluate their authenticity and importance.

THE CHALKBOARD

The chalkboard is the most frequently used visual aid. Fortunately, it has become the joint property of pupils and teacher, in-

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stead of belonging almost wholly, as it formerly did, to the teacher. The chalkboard in the typical elementary room is covered with important concepts, new words, outlines, references, and summaries. Emphases and variety are afforded by using various colors of chalk. The following suggestions include uses which teacher and pupils may find for the chalkboard:

1. To outline a plan
2. To emphasize a name, word, or date
3. To indicate the spelling of a word
4. To indicate the pronunciation of a word
5. To establish or clarify a relationship
6. To make a summary
7. To develop an outline
8. To effect a systematic review
9. To cite a book or an article
10. To demonstrate form and arrangement
11. To demonstrate correct bibliographical form
12. To draw a map
13. To draw a cartoon
14. To construct a graph, diagram, or chart
15. To make a time line
16. To show relative locations
17. To present a list
18. To show classification
19. To demonstrate position, size, or shape
20. To ask a significant question
21. To give specific directions
22. To emphasize an important announcement
23. To present a report
24. To record a set of standards
25. To record a generalization
26. To indicate further research
27. To record votes
28. To tabulate opinions
29. To make a school calendar

BULLETIN BOARDS

Maps, pictures, and objects can be utilized directly, but they require a setting. For this purpose tables, shelves, and bulletin boards are necessary. The bulletin board serves the place of the



VARIOUS TYPES OF MATERIALS ARE NECESSARY FOR PUPIL GROWTH
AND DEVELOPMENT.



GLOBES AND MAPS BUILD REALISTIC CONCEPTIONS OF AREAS AND REGIONS.



VISUAL AND AUDITORY AIDS ARE MOST VALUABLE WHEN
PUPILS THEMSELVES PARTICIPATE.



COURTESY AND KINDNESS CAN BEST BE LEARNED BY DIRECT
EXPERIENCE IN GROUPS.

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town crier. Whatever is of interest to a pupil, a committee, or the class may properly find a place on the bulletin board. The teacher might well reserve a section for her displays and thus demonstrate the variety and types of suitable materials, but most of the board should belong to the pupils. In fact, each room should be equipped with two or three. They can be managed in succession by a committee, a club, and occasionally by an individual pupil.

The contents of a bulletin board cannot be determined. The following types are therefore merely suggestive.

1. Announcements	10. Drawings
2. Advertisements	11. Graphs
3. Booklets	12. News stories
4. Book jackets	13. Original maps
5. Brief excerpts	14. Pictures
6. Cartoons	15. Post cards
7. Charts	16. Small objects
8. Clippings	17. Stamps
9. Committee reports	

The contents of a bulletin board should be changed frequently, thus maintaining a high degree of curiosity. While not a direct aid itself, the bulletin board serves as a usual repository and a constant motivation.

GRAPHS AND CHARTS

Graphs, charts, posters, tables, and lists require creation as well as display. They involve research, assembling, recording, and organizing of materials. Hence their values extend beyond the area of visual aids and embrace the whole field of activity and experience.

Graphs are used in social studies classes to show comparisons of size, distance, amount, and numbers. They are a convenient tool for the teacher of middle grade children, but they cannot be used effectively until the pupils have developed a degree of quantitative comprehension.

The circle graph provides a simple means of presenting approximate comparisons of quantities and sizes, although it does

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not enable one to make exact comparisons. Bar graphs are also easily understood. Squares, divided into parts, presented in a series, or superimposed on the largest unit, make an interesting kind of graph for more mature pupils. Picture graphs are attractive, readable, and make lasting impressions. To be clear to elementary pupils, picture graphs should be constructed of a series of uniform units, each representing the same amount, rather than of different sized figures intended to convey proportionate amounts.

Graphs may be presented in a variety of ways. The teacher may construct one on the blackboard. Pupils may draw a large graph on poster board for class study. Reproduced on a glass slide, the graph can be enlarged through the lantern-slide projector. Upper grade textbooks for social studies make frequent use of graphs.

Facts which become clearer when put in order or arranged side by side can be presented effectively in a chart. The time relationship between events will be more easily remembered if the pupil studies a chart in which they are listed in chronological order, with an illustrative picture beside each. Pictorial charts can be prepared to clarify new terms, to illustrate relationships other than chronology, or to show organization. Charts, like graphs, may be presented in a variety of ways. Preparing a meaningful chart and presenting it to the class is an excellent activity for the pupil. Teachers should make frequent and varied use of graphic charts.

AUDIO-VISUAL MATERIALS DELIMITED

The early proponents of the values and revolutionary changes that films and the radio would effect in education have proved to be poor prophets. The value of sensory aids was perceived by Comenius and exploited by Basedow. In fact, observant teachers of all times have noted the accelerated progress that resulted from the use of pictures, objects, and other direct experiences. Motion pictures, the radio, and television are unquestionably facilitating the acquisition of information and promoting understanding, but they are aids and not the whole process of education. They must be supplemented by motivating exercises, accompanied by

aroused interests, strengthened by the personal guidance of the teacher, and related to larger patterns of learning.

It should be recognized that just any object, film, map, or picture will not do. The selected aid must be pertinent to the purpose of the learner and related to his present interest. The indiscriminate use of aids is just as ineffective as the indiscriminate use of scattered and unsynthesized curricular materials. Activities for their own sake are no longer regarded as educationally efficient; neither are aids by themselves particularly effective. They require curricular synthesis and learning pertinency.

These cautions should not be interpreted as a belittling of learning aids; they are intended as admonitions for the need of such precautions as purpose, relevance, perspective, evaluation, and synthesis. While the enthusiastic prophecies of twenty years ago were too hopeful, they were not false or misleading. The values of audio-visual aids are real and extensive.

SOURCES OF VISUAL AND AUDITORY MATERIALS

Pictures, Postcards, Photographs, and Prints

American Museum of Natural History, Chief of Photographic Division, 77th St. & Central Park West, New York.

Americana Corporation, 2 W. 45th St., New York.

Art Institute of Chicago, Department of Reproductions, Chicago, Ill.

F. E. Compton & Co., 100 N. Dearborn St., Chicago, Ill.

Denoyer-Geppert Co., 5235 N. Ravenswood Ave., Chicago, Ill.

Friendship Press, 156 5th Ave., New York.

Grolier Society, 2 W. 45th St., New York.

Informative Classroom Picture Publishers, 1209 Kalamazoo Ave., Grand Rapids, Mich.

Keystone View Co., Meadville, Pa. (For stereographs)

Longmans, Green & Co., 114 5th Ave., New York.

Metropolitan Museum of Art, 5th Ave. & 82nd St., New York.

Milton Bradley Co., Springfield, Mass.

Museum of Fine Arts, Boston, Mass.

National Geographic Society, School Service, 16th & M St., N.W., Washington, D.C.

F. A. Owen Publishing Co., Dansville, New York.

Perry Pictures Co., Malden, Mass.

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Photographic History Service, Box 2401, Hollywood, Calif.
Pictorial Statistics, Inc., 22 E. 40th St., New York.
Sawyer Pictures, Concord, N.H.
University Prints, Newton, Mass.

Glass Slides

American Museum of Natural History, Department of Education,
Central Park West at 79th St., New York. Rent.
Eastman Educational Slides, Iowa City, Iowa. Sell.
Eye Gate House, 330 W. 42nd St., New York. Sell.
Foundation Press, 501 Bulkley Building, Cleveland, Ohio. Sell.
Keystone View Co., Meadville, Pa. Sell.
Photographic History Service, Box 2401, Hollywood, Calif. Sell.
Pictorial Statistics, Inc., 22 E. 40th St., New York. Sell.
Sawyer Pictures, Concord, N.H. Sell.
United States Government, Department of Agriculture, Extension
Service, Washington, D.C. Loan.
United States Government, Department of Agriculture, Forest Serv-
ice, Washington, D.C. Loan.

Filmstrips and Still Films

Classroom Teacher, Inc., Chicago, Ill.
Eye Gate House, 330 W. 42nd St., New York.
Foley and Edmunds, Inc., 480 Lexington Ave., New York.
Jam-Handy Organization, 2900 E. Grand Blvd., Detroit, Mich.
Society for Visual Education, Dept. 3ES, 100 E. Ohio St., Chicago,
Ill.
Still Films, Inc., 8443 Melrose Ave., Hollywood, Calif.

Globes and Maps

George F. Cram Co., Inc., 730 E. Washington St., Indianapolis, Ind.
Denoyer-Geppert Co., 5235 Ravenswood Ave., Chicago, Ill.
Dobson, Evans Co., Columbus, Ohio.
Historical Publishing Co., Topeka, Kans.
Keystone View Co., Meadville, Pa. (For maps on slides)
McConnel School Map Co., Goshen, Ind.
National Geographic Society, 16th and M St., N.W., Wash-
ton, D.C.
Rand McNally & Co., Chicago, Ill.
Silver, Burdett & Co., 45 E. 17th St., New York.
Stanley Bowmar Co., 2067 Broadway, New York.

UTILIZING AUDIO-VISUAL MATERIALS

United States Government, Department of Interior, Washington,
D.C. (Geological Survey Maps)
Weber Costello Co., Chicago Heights, Ill.

Motion Pictures

(Principal producers of classroom films)

Academy Films, Box 3088, Hollywood, Calif.
Coronet Instructional Films, 65 East South Water St., Chicago 1.
Encyclopædia Britannica Films, Inc., 1150 Wilmette Ave., Wilmette,
Ill.
Films, Inc., 330 West 42nd St., New York 18.
Simmel-Meservey, 321 South Beverly Drive, Beverly Hills, Calif.
United World Films, Inc., 1445 Park Ave., New York 29.
Young America Films, Inc., 18 East 41st St., New York 17.

(Principal producers of government films)

Australia News and Information Bureau, 630 Fifth Ave., New
York 20.
Belgian Information Center, 630 Fifth Ave., New York 20.
British Information Services, 30 Rockefeller Plaza, New York 20.
Commonwealth of the Philippines, Dept. of Information and Public
Relations, 1617 Massachusetts Ave., Washington 6, D.C.
Czechoslovak Information Service, 1790 Broadway, New York.
Franco-American Audio-Visual Distribution Center, 934 Fifth Ave.,
New York 21.
Missouri Conservation Commission, Jefferson City, Mo.
New Mexico Tourist Bureau, Sante Fe, N. Mex.
New York State Conservation Dept., Broadway Arcade Bldg., Al-
bany, N.Y.
Ohio Division of Conservation and Natural Resources, 1106 State
Office Bldg., Columbus, Ohio.
Pan American Union Motion Picture Service, Washington 6, D.C.
Social Security Board, Washington, D.C.
Tennessee Valley Authority, Knoxville, Tenn.
U. S. Bureau of Mines Experiment Station, 4800 Forbes St., Pitts-
burgh 13, Pa.
U. S. Coast Guard, Public Relations, Wilkins Bldg., Washington,
D.C.
U. S. Department of Labor, Division of Labor Standards, Washing-
ton, D.C.
U. S. Public Health Service, Washington 25, D.C.

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U. S. Weather Bureau, Dept. of Commerce, Washington 25, D.C.
Wisconsin Conservation Commission, State Office Bldg., Madison,
Wis.

(Principal distributors of theatrical films)

Commonwealth Pictures Corp., 729 Seventh Ave., New York 19.
Eastin 16-mm Pictures, Box 598, Davenport, Iowa.
Films, Inc., 330 West 42nd St., New York 18.
Ideal Pictures Corp., 26 East Eighth St., Chicago 5.
March of Time, 369 Lexington Ave., New York.
Museum of Modern Art Film Library, 11 West 53rd St., New
York 19.
Post Pictures Corp., 115 West 45th St., New York 19.
RKO Radio Pictures, Inc., 1270 Avenue of the Americas, New
York 20.
Teaching Films Custodians, Inc., 25 West 43rd St., New York 18.
United World Films, Inc., 1445 Park Ave., New York 29.

Radio Programs

American Broadcasting Co., New York, N.Y.
Association for Education by Radio, 228 N. LaSalle St., Chicago 1,
Ill.
Columbia Broadcasting System, 485 Madison Ave., New York 22,
N.Y.
Federal Communications Commission, Washington, D.C.
Federal Radio Education Commission Bulletin, U.S. Office of Edu-
cation, Washington 25, D.C.
Mutual Broadcasting Co., New York 18, N.Y.
National Association of Broadcasters, Washington, D.C.
Radio Corporation of America, R.C.A. Building, New York, N.Y.
World Wide Broadcasting Foundation, International Headquarters,
133 Commonwealth Ave., Boston, Mass.

Recordings and Transcriptions

Association of Junior Leagues of America, Inc., Waldorf-Astoria
Hotel, New York 22, N.Y. Adaptations of selected fiction with
strong social studies background, transcribed on 16-inch records.
Hall, David. *The Record Book*. New York: Smith and Durrell,
1940. A critical survey of all types of musical records.
Miles, J. Robert. *Recordings for School Use—1942*. Yonkers,
N.Y.: World Book Co., 1942. A selected, annotated listing of

available recordings, prepared in collaboration with the Recordings Division, American Council on Education.

N.Y.U. Film Library. *Catalogue of Selected Educational Recordings*. New York: New York University. Lists records available in the NYU library; brief annotations. To obtain a free copy write Executive Secretary, Recordings Division, New York University Film Library, Washington Square, New York 3, N.Y.

United States Office of Education. *Catalogue of the Educational Radio Script and Transcription Exchange*. Lists transcriptions and records available through the Exchange.

Victor Record Catalogue. R.C.A. Victor Co., Camden, N.J. See educational section.

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ANDERSON, G. LESTER, "Should It Be Audio-Visual Aids or Audio-Visual Materials?" *Educational Screen*, 24:198, May, 1945.

Urges teachers to consider audio-visual materials not merely as aids in the teaching process, but as materials which are important and significant in their own right.

ASCHEMEYER, ESTHER, "Films and Slides Together," *Educational Screen*, 21:52-53, February, 1942.

Discusses specific films and teaching procedures, describing the use of sound films and slides in teaching a seventh grade unit on the westward movement.

ATWOOD, WALLACE W., "The Motion Picture in Teaching World Geography," *Education*, 64:404-408, March, 1944.

Urges increased use of films, emphasizing that best results can be obtained only if films are made for teaching purposes.

CANNELL, LEWIS D., "The Inseparability of Geography and Visual Aids," *Educational Screen*, 24:141-142, April, 1945.

Points out the necessity of using audio-visual materials in teaching geography, and indicates values of each type.

COREY, S. M., and ARNSPIGER, V. C., "What Are Good Classroom Pictures?" *Nation's Schools*, 36:52, August, 1945.

Describes criteria for judging classroom pictures.

RESOURCES AND EQUIPMENT

COWAN, M. H., "Silent vs. Sound Films in Education," *High Points*, 23: No. 2, 23, February, 1941.

Summarizes research on classroom use of sound and silent moving pictures; points out the adaptability of silent films.

DALE, EDGAR, *Audio-Visual Methods in Teaching*. New York: Dryden, 1946.

Deals with almost every aspect of aids. Three chapters specifically on social studies. While some of the materials are somewhat out of date the principles and methods described will never be outmoded.

DOW, STERLING, "Illustrations in Textbooks," *Journal of General Education*, 5:101-115, January, 1951.

Concludes from a study of textbook illustrations that they are generally poor. Suggests many concrete ways for improving them. Several illustrations are given as examples of the better type of pictures for textbooks.

ENGELHARDT, N. L., JR., "Air World Geography," *Education*, 64: 413-419, March, 1944.

A concise survey of the problem of maps for the air age, and of the dangers inherent in Mercator map-mindedness on the part of Americans.

FORSYTH, ELAINE, "Map Reading," *Journal of Geography*, 42:249-257, October, 1943.

The first of a series of eight articles which appear in unbroken sequence in this magazine concerning the teaching of map reading skills. Concrete and specific. Teachers will find them of great value.

FULLER, KENNETH A., "Developing Map Reading Skills for Global Emphasis," *Journal of Geography*, 42:216-220, September, 1943.

Discusses advantages and disadvantages of polar projections; gives a 33 item test for use with a north polar map.

GARLAND, JOHN H., "The Superior School Giant Globe: An Elementary School Activity Project," *Journal of Geography*, 41: 328-331, December, 1942.

Describes a project in construction and use of an eight-foot globe.

UTILIZING AUDIO-VISUAL MATERIALS

HOBAN, C. F., JR., *Focus on Learning*. Washington, D. C.: American Council on Education, 1942.

A comprehensive, readable discussion of classroom films — values, methods of use, procedures for evaluation; many specific examples are given.

HOFF, A. G., "Movies vs. Field Trips," *Educational Screen*, 21:219-220, June, 1942.

Argues that movies can bring the same learning experiences as field trips — more cheaply, more conveniently.

IRWIN, JAMES R., "Action in Today's Instructional Film," *Journal of Educational Research*, 44:39-42, September, 1950.

Concludes that twelve per cent of the content of the ordinary teaching film can be presented as effectively by slides, stereographs, or flat pictures. Suggests research to determine what subjects can best be taught by motion pictures and what other media could be used more effectively.

JAYNE, C. D., "Study of the Learning and Retention of Materials Presented by Lecture and by Silent Film," *Journal of Educational Research*, 38:47-58, September, 1944.

Reports experiment which indicated that merely showing silent films without integrating them into classwork was less effective than a lecture utilizing such visual aids as blackboard diagrams.

KING, ALLEN Y., "Adapting the Radio to the Classroom," *Social Education*, 5:412-418, October, 1941.

Reports on the Cleveland school radio system, stressing the advantages of radio programs via a school station.

KLOCK, J. M., "Common Sense in the Use of Films," *Social Education*, 12:77-79, February, 1948.

A timely warning concerning the limitations and defects of films. Insists that they are "aids" and not "education."

LONG, A. L., "Recent Experimental Investigations Dealing with Effectiveness of Audio-Visual Modes of Presentation," *Educational Administration and Supervision*, 31:65-78, February, 1945.

RESOURCES AND EQUIPMENT

A survey, summarizing the general conclusions of recent investigations.

MARCH, L. S., "Pictures in Social Studies Teaching," *Social Education*, 5:26-30, January, 1941.

Discusses useful types of pictures and methods of using them; gives directions for making copies of pictures.

MERTON, MINETA, "Effective Use of Still Pictures in Elementary Social Studies," *Social Education*, 4:489-492, November, 1940.

Lists factors which must be interpreted into pictures (depth, sound) to make them meaningful to children, and discusses methods of doing it.

SCHNORRENBERG, KATHRYN, "Visual Materials Vitalize Geography," *Education*, 64:423-427, March, 1944.

Presents values of visual materials for geography study, emphasizing their importance for poor readers.

SVEC, MELVINA M., "Better Captions for Picture Study," *Journal of Geography*, 43:266-270, October, 1944.

States criticisms of current textbook captions, suggests approaches for oral questions about pictures as well as for written captions.

THRALLS, ZOE A., "The Use of the Globe," *Social Education*, 11:165-166, April, 1947.

An energetic and convincing plea for the more frequent use of the globe. Indicates how it can be of value at each grade level.

TYRRELL, WILLIAM G., "Television in the Social Studies," *Social Education*, 13:25-26, January, 1949.

Thus early in the development of this new means of communication, the author called attention to some potentialities and to some defects.

VAN FLEET, JULIA, "The Diorama Comes to the Classroom," *Educational Screen*, 22:204, 205, June, 1943.

Discusses the values and use of the diorama in the classroom; suggests criteria for selection of dioramas, or of topics about which children may develop dioramas.

VAUTER, S., "Varied Uses of Slides in the Intermediate Grades," *Educational Screen*, 21:178, 179, May, 1942.

UTILIZING AUDIO-VISUAL MATERIALS

Urges greater use of handmade slides in intermediate grades, citing experiments to show that handmade lantern slides increase learning gains.

WITTICH, W. A., and SOUTHERN, W. A., "Do Films Serve the Primary Grades?" *Educational Screen*, 23:426, 427, December, 1944.

Discusses the general purposes to be achieved through use of films in the primary grades. Gives an annotated list of 32 suitable films, many with social studies content.

22. UTILIZING AND SERVING THE COMMUNITY

NATURE OF LOCAL MATERIALS

The community is an epitome of the world. It provides instances of every fundamental process, past and present. The local church is the summation of man's efforts to meet spiritual needs; the grocery store is the crossroads of the world's economic highways; the village council is wrestling with many of the problems that have vexed rulers of all ages; the local doctor shares in all knowledge concerning sickness and health; the local citizens are the heirs of all the ages. The local community has continuity with the past and connections with all the world, and includes all the hopes which inspire men everywhere. It has dignity and meaning. The teacher who cannot appreciate the community in which her school is located is overlooking a source of living power.

The resources of a community may be divided into (1) physical phenomena, such as hills, soil, roads, factories, mills, books, museums, and other material things and places which can be visited; (2) social institutions, such as families, parties, courts, unions, teams, and clubs; and (3) such intangibles as customs, ideas, beliefs, traditions, and attitudes. The pupils can appreciate these three groups or categories in proportion to their own maturity and experience.

The teacher should know the community as thoroughly as her pupils do. This may sound like a low standard, but in view of the fact that teachers shift from city to city and often begin the school year in a relatively unfamiliar setting, it is a practicable standard. Most of the pupils within a particular school have grown up in the surrounding community and so have a degree of understanding which a new teacher has had no chance to acquire. The teacher should therefore undertake to know the community as well as her pupils do and to learn those aspects of it with which

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they are familiar. This requires effort and some degree of systematic study.

DELIMITING THE COMMUNITY

It is well for the teacher to realize that there is no such entity as *the community*; there are instead numerous overlapping *communities*. It is, of course, desirable to start with the school community which is ordinarily the school district. But even this clear-cut legal concept has been altered radically in recent years. Thousands of schools now draw pupils from wide areas. Some school districts cover hundreds of square miles. The rapid growth of suburbs to big cities has frequently led to the transporting of pupils to the schools in the larger cities. In spite of these variations there is such an entity as the school community.

The community can often be identified with the city or town *corporation*. Formerly the school district and the city boundaries coincided, but even though the territory is identical, the differences are marked. As a corporation the city is concerned with all the people; as a school district it is concerned primarily with the pupils who attend school.

In addition to the corporation and the school district a third entity is the *business community*. It may be relatively small or very extensive. If the town is favorably located it may be the trading center for a large surrounding area. Even the business community is divided and subdivided into dozens of variations. For example the *grocery* community is small; the *hardware* community is a little larger; the *farming machinery* community is still larger; the *women's clothing* community is still more inclusive. The distance which people go to trade depends upon the nature of their purchases. A mother and daughter may drive forty miles to buy a winter coat or a new dress, whereas they would go only a few blocks to buy soap or sugar. Thus the business communities overlap within the corporation and extend miles beyond the corporate limits.

A fourth variation is the *religious* community. It too is complex and overlapping. Within the corporate limits the population may divide into seven or ten denominations, and each one is sure to draw some members from the rural areas.

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A fifth variation is the *cultural* community. A good public library which is open to everyone will draw persons from distant points. The same is true of a museum, Chautauqua, reading club, and other types of cultural organizations.

A sixth variation is the *entertainment* community. Good picture shows and theaters, circuses and ball teams, playgrounds and race tracks create real communities of interest and patronage.

Other variations could be cited and identified, but these examples demonstrate the fact that the teacher operates in a complex pattern of overlapping communities, based upon varying interests. The teacher who wishes to know her communities thoroughly may well undertake to make a series of studies and maps which show these overlapping and discrete centers of interest and activity.

THE COMMUNITY UNLIMITED

In the previous section the community was treated as a local manifestation, more or less complete and self-sufficient. While this viewpoint is true, the opposite idea that the varying communities are merely local manifestations of a national pattern is also true. As one looks at a political map of the United States he is impressed by the separateness of the states, the wide areas between many cities, and the great diversity and dissimilarity of the country. But if one thinks of a specific example, such as the *religious* or *business* or *professional* community, he will immediately realize its national, even universal, ramifications. So the person who thinks of a community as local, parochial, provincial, or isolated is seeing only half the picture; it is also extensive, national, world-wide, universal, and unlimited.

The network of connections which make the United States a people deserves identification. Almost every local group is also a unit in a universal pattern. The doctors in Springfield know what the doctors in Chicago, Boston, and Rochester have discovered; the medical profession is a closely integrated pattern. They look to certain well-established medical schools and hospitals for leadership and spread the knowledge of their advances through conventions and publications. The plumbers of Springfield know the materials which are made at Kohler, Chicago, and Detroit. Thus the local plumber is also a representative of a national

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group which shares a common knowledge and skill. The Methodists of Springfield seem to be widely separated from the Methodists of Cincinnati, St. Louis, and Georgia, but through church papers, conferences, and bishops they constitute a fairly homogeneous group which shares a common faith.

Thus the teacher is confronted with the paradox that the *local* is also the *universal*. Recognition of this fundamental truth shows why community study is broadening rather than narrowing; for it leads, not only to an understanding of Springfield, but to an understanding of the whole world.

GETTING ACQUAINTED WITH A COMMUNITY

While no formula for getting acquainted with a community can have validity for all teachers, some of the major steps in such a procedure can be suggested. These separate steps may or may not be put into a formal plan.

1. Know the United States and the state. Paradoxical as it may sound, the first step in studying a community is to know the total culture of the country and state. A knowledge of our national history — its politics, land laws, migrations, its democratic ideas, and its traditions — is the minimum requirement for understanding a particular community. Within the state one needs a similar grasp of history and politics in order to approach the study of a local community. Fortunately, social studies teachers by training and inclination are well prepared with this background knowledge and understanding.

2. Visit and talk with people. The teacher who has curiosity and a friendly attitude can quickly learn a great deal about the community, both its physical aspects and its intangibles. The teacher should talk with typical patrons and individuals in addition to colleagues, administrators, and school board members. A somewhat random acquaintance tends to free her from the prejudices and preconceptions which she might get by talking only with school people.

3. Explore the community. Visit its stores, industries, residential areas, and the surrounding countryside. A visual picture of the community is a necessary condition of understanding the environment in which the pupils live.

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4. Read the local newspaper. From it one can quickly secure a definite idea of business and industry, social life, and the place of the community in relation to neighboring areas and cities.

5. Read a history of the community if one is available. In case the town has no written history one should read a history of the county. There are few counties in the United States without some kind of written history. Many such local works are poor in quality, but even a poor record is better than no record. This step is especially important, for it will at once give the teacher a sense of assurance, a kind of professional advantage, for the typical citizen of a community will not have read its history.

6. Participate in community affairs. The teacher should demonstrate her interest in the community by becoming a practicing citizen as soon as possible. Research studies show that elementary teachers are behind high school teachers in this respect. The elementary school teacher should lag behind no group in civic participation. While the church offers an immediate and desirable avenue for participation, the teacher should join clubs, serve on committees, and participate in affairs which touch the life of the whole community and not merely the segment of it that is found within a particular church.

7. Single out unique features for special study. Almost every community prides itself on some unusual feature; it may be the birthplace or home of a well-known person, the scene of a famous event, the production center of a particular commodity, an unusual location, a special achievement in government or industry, or any one of a dozen ways in which it seeks to establish its separate identity. The teacher does well to recognize the feature or features which are the pride of the community. Even if they are somewhat flimsy and unsubstantial, the teacher should take them as seriously as truth and sincerity allow, for they are the avenues through which she can touch the life of the community.

SUGGESTED SOURCES AND RESOURCES

The resources of a community are numerous and varied and the sources for studying them are equally numerous and varied. The suggested lists should be used as a basis for making plans

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which are applicable to a particular class and to a particular community. The following lists are quite inclusive; only a trained sociologist working full time could make a complete community survey. The teacher's function is, not to guide her pupils through all aspects of the community, but to find and select for study those which have educative values. She must therefore remember the limitations of elementary pupils and select those which are pertinent, convenient, and helpful.

RESOURCES AND SOURCES OF COMMUNITY STUDY

RESOURCES	SOURCES
I. Geography	I. Geography
Soil	Teachers
Configuration	Local experts
Drainage	County agents
Erosion	4-H club leaders
Need of reforestation	Grange officers
Elevation	Agricultural surveys
Latitude, longitude	Geodetic survey maps
Length of growing sea- son	Relief maps
Temperature, extremes, average	Weather reports
Natural resources	Crop reports
Timber	
Minerals	
Water power	
II. Population	II. Population
Ratio males to females	Census reports
Number by age groups	Industrial reports
Rate of increase	Church records
Average family size	Court records
Births	Patriotic societies
Deaths	Telephone installations
Marriages	Water, gas, and electric installations
Divorces	
Density of population	Election returns
Internal migration	School records concern- ing parents
Percentage of voters	

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RESOURCES	SOURCES
Nationalities represented	Interviews
Percentage and numbers	
Attitude toward foreign groups	
III. History	III. History
Origin of community homes	Local histories
Date of settlement	Historical societies
Place of settlement	Old residents
Reason for settlement	Newspaper files
Identity of early settlers	Old maps
Recent immigrants	Records of churches, clubs, and societies
Early leaders	Town records
Reasons for community growth	Diaries
Outstanding events	School records
Outstanding industries	Business records
IV. Farms	IV. Farms
Number	Census reports
Average size	Agricultural yearbooks
Crops	Local crop reporter
Livestock	County agent
Poultry	Outstanding farmers
Fruit	Assessor's lists
Farm mortgages	Questionnaires
Tenancy	Visits
Farm labor	Interviews
Kinds of machinery	
Roads	
Conveniences — electricity, gas, telephones, mail	
V. Industries	V. Industries
Number and types	Interviews
Location	Business records
Number of employees	Observation

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RESOURCES	SOURCES
Conditions of work	
Wages	
Standard of living	
Unemployment	
Distribution of products	
VI. Commerce	VI. Commerce
Stores	Interviews
Chain and local	Visits
Mail order business	Freight records
Cooperatives	Bank statements
Peddlers	Advertisements
VII. Transportation	VII. Transportation
Railroads	Specimen counts of passengers
Kinds of trains	Observations
Bus lines	Interviews
Truck lines	Number of tickets sold
Water transport	Classified directory
Airport	Advertisements
Automobiles	Automobile license bureau
Roads	Railroad and bus folders
Volume of traffic	Maps
Principal freight	
VIII. Communication	VIII. Communication
Newspapers	Newspapers
Telephones	Interviews
Telegraph	Visits
Radios	Telephone book
Mail	
IX. Occupations	IX. Occupations
Professions	Interviews
Number in each	Salaries
Services	Income taxes paid
Farmers	Payrolls
Laborers	Relief records

RESOURCES AND EQUIPMENT

RESOURCES

X. *Standard of Living*

- Housing
- Types and conditions
- Slums
- Relief rolls
- Business buildings
- Bathrooms
- Electricity
- Refrigerators
- Sweepers
- Telephones
- Radios
- Automobiles

XI. *Health*

- Birth rate
- Death rate
- Prevalent diseases
- Number of doctors
- Hospitals
- Health regulations
- Water supply
- Garbage disposal
- Sewage disposal
- Accidents
- Malnutrition

XII. *Government Services*

- Police
- Fire department
- Health department
- Public library
- Traffic control

XIII. *Recreation*

- Parks, playgrounds
- Hunting, fishing
- Sports

SOURCES

X. *Standard of Living*

- Interviews
- Observation
- Tax rolls
- Building permits
- Housing projects
- Building activity
- Sales records
- Telephone book

XI. *Health*

- Vital statistics reports
- Health records
- Hospital records
- School health records
- Accident records
- School lunches

XII. *Government Services*

- State laws
- Local ordinances
- Safety patrols
- Council proceedings
- Election returns
- State guide books
- Visits
- Interviews

XIII. *Recreation*

- Visits
- Participation
- License records

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RESOURCES	SOURCES
Picture shows	Advertisements
Poolrooms	Broadcasting announcements
Recreational clubs	
Radio programs	
XIV. Education	XIV. Education
Schools	School records
Attendance	Certificates
Curriculum	Library files
Costs	Circulation records
Libraries	Nurse's reports
Books available	School staff
Adult education	Members of community
Lectures	
Lyceums	
XV. Churches	XV. Churches
Number	Membership lists
Denominations	Conference records
Membership	Marriage records
Attendance	Sunday School lists
Activities	Baptismal records
Ministers	Interviews
Influence	Observation
XVI. Social Ideas	XVI. Social Ideas
Traditions	Old residents
Rivalries	Newspapers
Local leaders	Social workers
Crime	Ministers
Attitude toward	Teachers
Sunday amusements	Town officials
Drinking	Observation
Smoking	
Dancing	
Divorce	

UTILIZING SOURCES

The foregoing check list calls for the frequent use of interviews, observation, and visits. The use of the printed materials requires the kinds of reading and study which have been described in

RESOURCES AND EQUIPMENT

previous chapters. Direct contact with resources calls for the development of a new technique.

Field trips should be planned experiences for learning. Just as there is a readiness for reading there is also a readiness for a field trip. The pupils are ready for such an experience when they have studied and read about a problem or topic whose understanding can be promoted by direct observation. A trip for entertainment or to escape from the classroom can have only a minimum of value. Hence the pupils, with the help of the teacher, should plan the details of transportation, assure a reception by previous arrangements, state concretely what they hope to learn, and relate the proposed excursion to the unit of study.

The taking of a class to a farm, store, or bank requires the joint planning of teacher and pupils. This planning should involve (1) the formulation of a purpose, one which can best be forwarded by a trip; (2) the preparation of the class by preliminary study, by formulating the questions which the pupils will ask, and by listing the features or aspects to be noted; (3) the securing of permission in advance and having the assurance that the class will be received and helped; (4) providing for the consent of the parents and the safe transportation of the pupils; (5) the proper and courteous conduct of the pupils; (6) the subsequent study and utilization of what was learned on the trip.

Newspapers have discovered that readers want long and detailed accounts of what they already know. The largest sale of late sports editions are to the people emerging from the game or contest. Similarly, the teacher knows that pupils who have just returned from a profitable field trip are alert with interest, eager to exchange reactions, and willing to prepare reports, write letters of appreciation, compile pictures, and write items for the school paper or the local press. The success of the trip can be measured by the quality, extent, and variety of the outcomes that show up in the summary or evaluation.

The teacher, or in large cities, groups of teachers, should accumulate a file of places to be visited. Such a directory should give such data as (1) what is to be seen, (2) value and purpose, (3) time required, distance from school, and cost, (4) hours and days when such visits can be made, (5) the person to be con-

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tacted, (6) the class or age level for which the trip is designed, and (7) any special features or precautions. With such a directory available a teacher need waste no time in making arrangements. Well-planned trips are valuable and helpful, whereas the unplanned ones are often marred by accidents, unsatisfactory returns, and a sense of wasted time.

The following suggested resources can be best studied by making field trips. No teacher should use all of them or even try to swell the number of such trips, but when the occasion requires, each of these resources has great potential value.

SPECIMEN FIELD TRIPS

Brickyard	Dairy
Packing plant	Chicken hatchery
Rubber factory	Farm
Candy factory	Apiary
Thermometer factory	Greenhouse
Hydroelectric plant	Museum
Canning factory	Art gallery
Cotton gin	Library
Mill	Voting polls
Tapestry weaving shop	Political meeting
Ice cream factory	Police station
Newspaper plant	Court
Bakery	Assessor's office
Photographer's studio	City water plant
Steel plant	Flower garden
Road under construction	Vegetable garden
Building under construction	Fair
Coffee company	Dog kennels
Automobile assembly plant	Livestock farm
Warehouse terminal	Grain elevator
Oil well	Interesting natural scenes
Historical society	Various types of houses
Church	Telephone exchange
Railway station	Broadcasting station
Freight yard	Theater
Wharf	Zoo
Airport	Planetarium
City hall	Park

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Courthouse	Cemetery
Iron mine	Monument
Coal mine	Historical sites
Quarry	Post office
Bank	Fire department
Store	Business college
Hotel	High school
Summer resort	University

SERVING THE COMMUNITY

In the chapter on methods (Chapter 16) the point was made that the most valuable learnings arise from participation in socially useful processes. The way to become a good citizen is to serve the community. Similarly, the pupils who learn most about a community are the ones who not only utilize its resources, but who also serve it in the greatest variety of ways. This is simply another application of the principle of learning by doing.

Without minimizing or delaying community participation by pupils, it is desirable that they be active school citizens. Participation in school government is valuable as a preparation for civic training. As school citizens pupils should be led to initiate projects and activities that are beneficial to pupils and teachers. Pupils can and do improve lunchroom behavior; decorate walls and halls with posters, pictures, and murals; conduct lost and found departments; supervise campaigns to regulate conduct on the playground; plant flowers and seeds around the grounds; build birdhouses; construct or buy bicycle racks; establish systems for caring for coats, rubbers, and sweaters; and prepare assembly programs. School citizenship has a high transfer value; the good school citizen can easily become a good community citizen.

Pupils can be active citizens beyond the school. They can help to maintain clean streets, parks, and playgrounds; they can respect and care for public property; they can observe traffic rules; they can be mindful of the requirements of safety; they can participate in drives, clean-up projects, civic celebrations, and historical anniversaries and holidays; they can regulate Halloween practices; they can make land-use surveys and urge the removal

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of rubbish; they can secure trash containers for city corners; and they can develop civic pride and instill it in others.

Most of the above projects can be encouraged, or even directed, by the teacher. While pupil services should not be substituted for adult or official services, they can often be used to fill in actual civic deficiencies. In such cases the pupils sense the reality of their services and gain valuable experiences in citizenship.

The civic activities of children, like all other activities under the direction of the school, should be chosen primarily for their educative values; so it is obvious that some community services should not be undertaken by pupils. They cannot clean up a corrupt city hall, abate smoke nuisances, counteract a crime wave, or lay new pavements, but there are many civic services which do fit the capacities and interests of children. These they can and should render. Both they and the community benefit when they serve as well as utilize the community.

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Examples of worth-while trips by various classes. Emphasize planning.

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A project, "Exploring Your Community," was carried out in the Detroit public schools to determine how much direct experience pupils were getting. The conclusions were that: (1) teachers cannot assume that their pupils have had many enriching direct experiences, (2) some schools do not make sufficient use of community facilities for direct experiences, (3) schools are not providing direct experiences which acquaint pupils with government activities, (4) most direct experiences are provided by the home, (5) church and club

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groups provide few direct experiences, (6) pupils have had most of their direct experiences with recreational and cultural activities, and have had their fewest experiences with governmental activities, and (7) socio-economic status does not seem to affect direct experience.

DIEHL, IVAN C., "Method of Procedure for an Excursion," *Journal of Geography*, 39:78-80, February, 1940.

How to plan a profitable field trip.

DIXON, DOROTHY I., "Community Resources Pave the Way," *Educational Screen*, 22:47-51, February, 1943.

Presents in parallel columns a plan for community study in a rural school and the visual materials used; excellent example of a perpendicular social studies unit to be studied in some of its phases by every grade.

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Describes types of pupil activities in cooperation with community enterprises as reported by teachers. The values of this participation in child development, community consciousness, and citizenship are noted.

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Elementary pupils study the home, community, region, nation, and world. For the last two they have reasonably satisfactory materials. For the community and region they have almost nothing. The author advocates local writing and publication. Predicts that publishers will eventually realize that the region offers as great a market as the whole nation once did.

KINDRED, L. W., and STEPHENSON, O. W., "The Technique of the Field Trip," *Social Education*, 5:21-25, January, 1941.

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KREY, A. C., *A Regional Program for the Social Studies*. New York: Macmillan, 1938.

A concrete demonstration of the way to make a program which fits a region — the upper Mississippi, in this instance.

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A pioneer study which still has great suggestive value. A later study of Muncie was published in 1937 under the title *Middletown in Transition*.

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Probably the most inclusive general treatment of the various aspects of community resources.

NEW YORK STATE EDUCATIONAL DEPARTMENT, *Exploring the Environment*, Albany, 1943.

This excellent booklet is worthy of the attention of teachers outside as well as inside New York State. The plans and procedures are transferable; only the bibliographies remain largely local. Local teachers can by industry and cooperation duplicate many of the helps, projects, and materials. Contains a long check list of the elements in a community survey.

RAUTMAN, ARTHUR L., "Children as Agents of Social Reform," *Elementary School Journal*, 50:277-282, January, 1950.

Deals with the problem of using the school child as a medium through which to influence the home and the community. Warns against harm to the child in ill-advised projects. Advocates educating the child in tolerance, understanding, and respect while carrying out programs for improving the cultural standards of his home and community.

SANDERS, MARY F., "Producing Curriculum Materials about the Community," *Elementary School Journal*, 43:601-606, June, 1943.

RESOURCES AND EQUIPMENT

Emphasizes the interest and experience which children have in local resources. The teacher should prepare pictures, exhibits, and articles of a local nature. The policy should cover years and not just a few weeks.

SNEDAKER, MABEL, "Using Community Resources in the Primary Grades," *Social Education*, 4:188-193, March, 1940.

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SOBEL, MORTON J., "Familiarizing Children with Community Resources," *Elementary School Journal*, 50:223-229, December, 1949.

Describes a unit of classroom work planned with pupil cooperation in which the class was organized into committees to study different aspects of the neighborhood. This project enabled the children to learn about the community through their own investigations.

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A concise, illustrated study of a small city. A specimen study which shows the blending of historical, cultural, and economic factors.

Part 7

EVALUATING THE OUTCOMES

23. PRINCIPLES OF EVALUATION

THE MEANING OF EVALUATION

The human mind is constantly evaluating actions, institutions, and processes. For instance: "How effective are these automobile brakes?" "Will these pills do me any good?" "Is the church performing its functions?" "Are the pupils in my class learning the techniques of cooperation?" These are specimens of the constant search to evaluate, to find out if human efforts are being wisely directed.

This over-all process of ascertaining the quality, value, or effectiveness of human efforts is designated by a number of words, such as *evaluating, judging, appraising, measuring, weighing, and estimating*. The vocabulary is not exact, and various writers assign varying meanings to their words. It seems helpful, however, to select certain words and delimit their meanings. One can thus make systematic progress in this complicated field.

As used in this book the word *evaluation* is the inclusive concept; it indicates all kinds of efforts and all kinds of means to ascertain the quality, value, and effectiveness of desired outcomes. It is a compound of objective evidence and subjective observations. It is the total and final estimate. As an inclusive, over-all concept *evaluation* is necessarily general, somewhat elastic, and at times even vague or indefinite, but it is nevertheless a valuable, an indispensable guide to the modification of policies and to further action.

Even though general, inclusive, and sometimes intangible, *evaluation* need not be vague, unreliable, or whimsical. It can and should rest in part upon the substantial base of ascertainable data that are valid and reliable. The two principal elements in evaluation are (1) *measurement*, which is objective and exact,

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and (2) *appraisal*, which is a compound of measurement and subjective interpretations.

1. **MEASUREMENT.** Measurement is that subdivision of evaluation which is stated in terms of percentages, amounts, scores, medians, means, etc. It does not rest upon judgment, opinion, inclination, or wish; it is independent of the evaluator's preference. Whatever can be stated in impersonal, exact, and objective terms falls within the scope of measurement. For example, the presence or absence of information can be definitely ascertained; hence, information falls within the scope of measurement. It does not need to be discussed in the loose terms of opinion or preference. Similarly, the possession of skills can be accurately measured rather than estimated.

2. **APPRAISAL.** Large areas of human activities are not amenable to measurement, yet they must often be evaluated. To the process of evaluating these intangible qualities, characteristics, attitudes, understandings, and outcomes we give the name *appraisal*. Appraisal rests in part upon measurement, even more upon rating scales, inventories, questionnaires, behavior records, and other nonquantitative techniques. To a considerable extent it rests upon observation and interpretation, and finally upon subjective opinions.

Both *measurement* and *appraisal* are integral parts of evaluation. Neither is more important than the other. While most authorities believe that it is desirable to measure whatever can possibly be measured, they do not advocate the elimination of appraisal. Appraisal operates in the areas to which measurement has not been applied. Appraisal employs value judgments, preferences, and wishes. To a considerable extent it is unashamedly subjective.

This distinction between measurement and appraisal is important; it clarifies the limits, functions, and possibilities of measurement, and it also emphasizes the value and scope of opinion and policy. It is the difference between a fact and an opinion, a quantity and an estimate, concrete reality and an intangible entity. The distinction enables one to understand current trends in evaluation and to interpret the current emphasis upon appraisal.

TRENDS IN EVALUATION

Measurement in education, particularly on the elementary level, has diminished in popularity. The ardent faith that led educators to declare that they would eventually measure whatever existed has weakened. The enthusiasm for objectivity which characterized the 1920's and early 1930's has waned. On the other hand, the popularity of appraisal has increased and has been expanded to include equipment, curricula, methods, behavior, attitudes, and other entities on which measurement had scarcely operated at all.

Measurement has declined and appraisal has increased in popularity because of two major developments in education, particularly at the elementary level. The first development is a growth in the conception of democracy and its application to education. Some educators have regarded the wholesale measurement of intelligence and mass testing programs as inimical to democracy. Since democracy involves a recognition of the uniqueness and individuality of each child, there is no point to knowing how he compares in particular qualities and achievements with other children or with a national norm. Such comparisons seem to becloud the integrity and obscure the individuality of each child. Since the whole testing movement results in the establishment of common standards and since democracy is based upon the uniqueness of each human being, testing and democracy are antithetical; so runs the argument. Whether such interpretations are valid or not, the fact remains that measurement has diminished in extent and popularity.

The second development that effected a diminution in the popularity of measurement has been the enormous increase in information about and understanding of children. Studies concerning growth, the acquisition of traits and characteristics, interests, and abilities have been synthesized into general patterns of growth and change. Numerous techniques for observing and studying children have been evolved. Many of these are being used by teachers. With so much information available many educators have seen less need of testing and measuring. In other words, appraisal, based upon records and concrete observation, has as-

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sumed some of the importance previously accorded measurement alone.

THE NEED FOR EVALUATION

Constant evaluation is a necessary factor in human progress. No invention is complete until it has met the test of utility, until it has been evaluated. No theory is accepted until it has been tested and appraised. No institution is continually satisfactory, for as time passes it is evaluated in the light of new needs.

Evaluation is an everyday process. The doctor who prescribes needs to ascertain the results of his treatment. The effectiveness of the lawyer's plea is evaluated by the jury. The quality of the carpenter's work is judged by the owner of the house. The farmer must measure his crops to know the effectiveness of fertilizing and cultivating. The parent is constantly observing the effects of his controls in the behavior of his offspring. So it is with the teacher. He is constantly aware of the varying factors that affect his instruction. He needs to ascertain the effectiveness of the textbook, of projects, of his methods, of his relationships with the pupils.

Evaluation provides the measure of success. It identifies defects and failures; it indicates possible changes in policies and actions. In education it enables the teacher to distinguish between the helpful and hurtful factors. It is scarcely too strong to say that education will make progress to the extent to which it utilizes and is guided by the results of evaluation.

WHAT SHOULD BE EVALUATED?

Teachers formerly concentrated upon the evaluation of pupil achievement to the neglect of other educational elements. For a long time this was almost the sole object of measurement. All too frequently the disappointing results were attributed to the inferiority of the pupils. Evaluation was thus restricted to one technique and one outcome instead of being applied to every step in the educational process. Thus, to the question posed in the heading, "What Should Be Evaluated?" the answer is: "Every step, element, and factor."

Every step in teaching should if possible be measured and those

which cannot be measured should be appraised. This means that the test itself should be scrutinized. The inspector of weights and measures does not assume that all the scales which he inspects are accurate. He outlaws some of them because they are defrauding the customers. The teacher should not assume that his tests are accurate. The test itself must be tested.

The whole process must be examined. If the results are disappointing, any one of several faults may need correction. Perhaps the objectives are vague or inappropriate or impossible. Perhaps the curriculum is not in line with the objectives. Perhaps the materials are too difficult or too easy for the grade for which they are used. Perhaps the equipment is hopelessly inadequate, the books too few and difficult, the supplies inappropriate, and the classroom gloomy and depressing. Perhaps the teacher is ill, unprepared, uninterested, or upset. Perhaps the method is unsuited to the pupils and the materials. Possibly the supervision is faulty, or the administration may so restrict the teacher as to prevent effective teaching. Any of these or other faults may occur. Only by evaluation can the offending step be identified and corrected.

WHAT CAN BE EVALUATED?

The preceding section suggested that evaluation should be applied to the whole educational process. In practice, however, it has proved to be difficult to secure acceptable and accepted measures or appraisals of some factors. It is difficult to ascertain the effects of supervision, of the teacher's methods, and of community influences. In spite of the difficulties and limitations, however, great progress has been made.

Evaluation, either in the form of measurement or appraisal, has been applied to nearly every step in the educational process — administration, objectives, selection, grading, organization, equipment, methods, study periods, and public relations. The results have varied greatly in tangibility and in their value as guides to desirable changes. Naturally it is much easier to separate and ascertain the effect of using a globe in the teaching of geography than it is to identify effective methods for developing citizenship. Nevertheless, attempts to measure all aspects and factors have

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been made. The teacher should become acquainted with these efforts and not assume that a particular quality or outcome is beyond evaluation.

The following elements have been evaluated, some by measurement and others by appraisal. Tests, scales, and inventories designed to help evaluate these elements are available.

ELEMENTS THAT HAVE BEEN EVALUATED

1. Abilities	12. Inference
2. Achievement	13. Information
3. Application	14. Intelligence
4. Appreciation	15. Interests
5. Attitudes	16. Interpretation
6. Civic beliefs	17. Judgment
7. Concepts	18. Maturity
8. Cooperation	19. Opinions
9. Discrimination	20. Preferences
10. Equipment	21. Skills
11. Generalizations	22. Toleration

EVALUATION — AN EXTERNAL PROCESS

According to prevailing educational opinion evaluation is an integral part of the teaching and learning process. While this statement is certainly true, there is one respect in which evaluation is external, outside the routine process. This is inevitably true, because evaluation is the attempt to appraise the value and success of the other steps. If evaluation itself is interwoven with the process, it loses its perspective, the detached vantage point from which properly to appraise the other steps. Hence, it is well to regard evaluation both as a part of the teaching-learning process and as an external, disinterested check upon the other steps. In spite of the intimate bond between teaching and evaluation, in spite of the fact that evaluation is a necessary and desirable step in the process, its separate, detached nature and function should be clearly recognized and its integrity respected.

The purpose of evaluation, of course, is to ascertain the extent and rate of progress toward the desired goals. Evaluation itself, however, does not indicate what changes should be made; it merely provides a picture of the current status of a pupil or class.

Similarly the act of weighing does not indicate any definite course of action; it is, per se, a simple act of measurement. The person who ascertains his weight may decide to eat more or to eat less, but the knowledge of his weight, in itself, points to no conclusion. Similarly, testing a class is a distinct act. In itself it points to no conclusion unless and until the teacher interprets the results.

Evaluation does provide the basis for deciding what changes should be made. In the light of its results the teacher can alter the purpose, select different materials, enrich the activities, and introduce more varied procedures. The recognition of evaluation as an impersonal and external process is the best guarantee that it will not be so subordinated as to destroy its function of passing judgment upon the other factors in the educational process.

MISCONCEPTIONS CONCERNING EVALUATION

The objectivity and impersonality of evaluation, both as measurement and as appraisal, should be respected and maintained. If measurement and appraisal are identified with objectives, curriculum, and method they tend to lose their integrity; they are diverted from their true function, namely, to reflect the status of the entity being measured. It is an ironical fact that zeal in utilizing the values of measurement sometimes leads to the debasing of measurement itself. A few popular misconceptions deserve examination for the purpose of enabling teachers to distinguish the whole process of teaching from one of its steps.

1. That tests can measure only the recall of facts.

The very existence of the multiple-choice form in which all needed information is given is a refutation of this fallacy. The large number of personality, skills, attitudes, and interests tests would seem to indicate that some of them are at least partially valid.

2. That evaluation should be stated in terms of objectives.

Evaluation can estimate the extent of progress toward an objective, but it must be stated in terms of goals, outcomes, or standards, rather than in terms of aims, purposes, or ideals. To state it in terms of objectives is to confuse its scientific value.

3. That evaluation should be continuous.

Evaluation should, of course, be frequent and continual; if it

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were actually continuous the teacher would have to devote himself solely to evaluation and measurement.

4. That evaluation stresses growth.

This statement is true only in an indirect sense. Evaluation itself cannot advocate, persuade, or promote. Its sole function is to appraise; the determination of what to do about the results of evaluation is a question of educational policy and not of measurement itself.

5. That evaluation should be in terms of the pupil's progress.

This statement is true but it is, as the following section demonstrates, only one third of the truth. The pupil should also be measured in terms of society's standards as interpreted by teachers and in comparison with the progress of other pupils. To base measurement wholly on the performance or growth of one individual is to deceive him and to destroy the social utility of measurement.

6. That a test is not a goal.

While true, this statement is misleading. Naturally the passing of a test is not a valid goal, but if the test is an accurate measure of progress toward a goal, then passing it may serve the very useful purpose of indicating the milestone that has been reached.

7. That evaluation requires pupil participation.

Certainly students should share in the determining of objectives, curriculum, and activities; they should participate in finding and selecting measuring instruments. They must accept the results of evaluation or else it is futile and fruitless. They should share the process at least to the extent necessary to convince them of its validity. All this should not lead to the conclusion, however, that they alone should be their own evaluators.

STANDARDS OF EVALUATION

Without some standard or criterion evaluation is impossible. In education there are three common criteria: (1) a socially derived standard, (2) a standard derived from the performance of groups, and (3) a standard in terms of self-performance. Each of these standards or criteria deserves careful examination.

1. A SOCIALLY DERIVED STANDARD. The teacher who induces her pupils to learn a list of concepts, to understand a particular gen-

eralization, or acquire a certain skill selects these materials because she considers them important. They are a part of the socially derived, school-administered, and teacher-interpreted standard. The teacher who assigns a mark of 70 per cent to a product appraises it on the basis of an ideal which, if it existed, would merit a mark of 100 per cent. The standard is postulated, assumed, or imagined.

A socially derived standard is not arbitrary, unreasonable, or objectionable. It may rest upon much thought and experience; it may be derived from very reliable research; or it may be accepted from the report of a national committee. If the fairness or validity of a postulated standard is questioned, the teachers assert that pupils need to know the materials. The primary teacher who sets out to teach a list of concepts defends her choices by saying that they are words which children need to know. The teacher who requires that her pupils learn the name of the state capital, be able to identify Lincoln, and recognize the national anthem defends her requirements by saying that society expects everyone to meet such commonplace standards.

The socially derived standard by which pupils are measured is thus composed of what the teacher thinks should be known, and it is defended by the argument of social needs. Such standards are frequently set up by teachers, and there is no question but that some of them represent social requirements. Thus the socially derived standard sometimes has both educational and social validity.

In spite of the time-honored use of the socially derived standard, in practice it is often arbitrary, personal, and unsound. Its use by a teacher implies social wisdom and pedagogical understanding. Few teachers are prepared to say what society demands, and few teachers know in advance what materials are learnable at a given grade level and what standard of achievement can justifiably be expected. Most teachers who set up these semi-arbitrary standards have doubts as to their social justification, and by requiring, not a perfect, but a 70 per cent performance, they unwittingly reveal a consciousness of the pedagogical unreasonableness of such standards.

A socially derived standard, however, when properly derived

and properly adjusted to the abilities of the pupils, is not only justifiable and workable, it is also imperative and inevitable. If a competent committee makes an adequate study of the concepts, dates, events, names, and skills which are actually necessary in modern society, and if the requirements are wisely apportioned to the proper grades, the teacher is justified in setting them up as standards of measurement. The abuse of the socially derived standard by individual teachers has brought it into disrepute, but such abuses cannot destroy the essential soundness of a socially derived standard properly administered.

2. A STANDARD DERIVED FROM GROUP PERFORMANCES. A second criterion of measurement is the actual performance of groups. According to this criterion the pupil is measured, not in terms of the standards which a teacher decrees, but in terms of the performance of a representative group. In the case of a standardized test the pupil is being measured by the performance of a representative sampling of pupils of similar age and grade level. In the case of a locally made test, he is being measured in terms of what his classmates do. In either case the pupil is being measured in terms of the performances of other pupils. It is a reasonable and practicable standard, one which appeals to pupils and one which teachers can easily justify and explain.

A workable group standard must, of course, be derived from a valid and reliable test. If it is an achievement test in geography, it must not be vitiated by items from nature study or civics. If it is a test of abstract intelligence it must not be vitiated by items dealing with attitudes. In brief, the group standard must be derived honestly and applied faithfully.

The proper application of even a group standard, however, requires judgment and discrimination. Many injustices are done in the names of group norms, median performances, and average achievement. The average pupil who is measured by a standard derived from a superior group suffers an injustice. The talented pupil who is measured by a standard derived from an average group may easily think of himself more highly than he ought to think. The unwise application of a group standard is also likely to lead the teacher to expect too much or too little of a particular

pupil. The standard is dependable and reliable, but it must be used with caution.

In the social studies the teacher should be especially careful in applying a group standard to a particular pupil. Such factors as racial origin, socio-economic status, religious background, and rural and urban residence affect pupil performances. While it is proper and informative to compare a rural and urban group, the teacher should not conclude that both groups ought to meet the same standard. It is illuminating to compare the performance of the pupils of an exclusive suburb with those of a blighted area, but the teacher should not expect similar performances. In other words, the objectivity and impersonality of measurement should be maintained and group standards should be ascertained, but the teacher must use discrimination in transferring them from one group to another or in applying a group standard to a particular pupil.

3. A STANDARD IN TERMS OF SELF-PERFORMANCE. A third standard of measurement is on the basis of the previous performance of the individual or the class. In using this standard the teacher employs three stages — the level of achievement which formerly characterized the pupil, his present status, and his future or potential status. The teacher tries to measure the pupil, not in terms of a postulated standard nor in terms of group performance, but in terms of his own growth or improvement. If his score on a test shows appreciable gain, no matter how much it may still lag behind the median performance of the class, the teacher can truthfully report that the pupil is making progress.

The typical golfer is not greatly interested in the score of his companion but only in his own score. His own score is encouraging if it is better than on the previous game. In spite of the fact that he is playing a match, he is more interested in beating his own record than he is in beating his opponent. Similarly, when the teacher uses a pupil's own performance as the criterion of measurement, she is not only providing a definite basis of comparison but she is also providing a powerful incentive.

The greatest difficulty in applying this standard of measurement is found in trying to measure the pupil on the basis of his potential achievement. Few teachers can know a particular pu-

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pil well enough to declare that he should reach a specified level of achievement. The teacher frequently tells pupils that they are capable of better achievement than they have shown, but such remarks are seldom based upon objective data. So in practice the measuring of a pupil on the basis of self-performance must be done in terms of progress beyond a past goal and not in terms of a potential standard.

The criterion of self-performance can often be made very specific, and even when it cannot be measured it can be evaluated in general terms. The pupil may become more courteous, more co-operative, more attentive, more faithful in his efforts, and these improvements are significant when viewed in the light of his previous stages in these qualities, even though they cannot be measured.

No teacher can adopt for exclusive use any one of the three criteria or standards described above. All of them have their advantages and their limitations; all of them should be used. Perhaps the socially derived standard should be used for measuring performance on specific materials which are absolutely essential, such as skill in using an index, the spelling of words, the recognition of selected names, events, dates, and concepts. The group standard should be used in measuring performance on tests, written assignments, and general materials. The standard of self-performance should be used in measuring attitudes, habits, conduct, and changes in personality traits. Thus each of the standards has its own advantages, and all should be used in making appraisals of pupils.

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24. TECHNIQUES OF MEASUREMENT

MEASUREMENT — A NECESSITY

This chapter is concerned with ways of measuring those elements of achievement that can be stated in scores, means, standard deviations, and other definite quantities. The principal elements that can be thus quantified are information, skills, discrimination, the application of principles, and the ability to outline, summarize, and organize. In brief, this chapter is concerned with the techniques of measurement; the following chapter deals with the techniques of appraisal.

Human progress depends upon measurement. "How many new school buildings are needed?" "How much steel can be produced next year?" "What will be the tax rate on property for this year?" The answer to these and to most questions in the applied fields can be found only by measuring the factors and making the computations.

Measurement has lifted the study of education from trial and error to at least a semiscientific level. Even though attempts to measure some intangibles have failed, it is certain that eventually most aspects of education will yield to measurement. While evaluation should rest in part upon progress in terms of self-growth, it should also be based in part upon comparisons with others and with social standards. Consequently above the primary grades every teacher should develop a testing program that includes as a minimum the occasional use of standardized tests in the social studies and the frequent use of teacher-made tests.

Standardized achievement tests reveal national standards. Every school and every pupil can profit by a realization of how they compare with such standards. Achievement tests are based upon a sampling of widely used materials; they do not involve

or imply standardization of content or the crystallization of the program. They emphasize the value of intensive study and the recognition of the essentials as well as encourage a wide coverage of content. Achievement tests measure what *is* taught and do not dictate as to what *should* be taught. Since American history, geography, and civics are widely taught, there are naturally more tests in these subjects, but tests in current affairs, vocations, and European history are also available.

Teacher-made tests can serve two purposes: measurement and instruction. Such tests can be used as a basis of comparison, as a locally derived standard, and the items can be used as instructional materials. The construction of a test also has the value of helping the teacher determine what is most essential, what is most worth stressing.

In addition to achievement tests of content, wide use should be made of those that measure skills and indicate vocational interests, civic attitudes, social competence, personality traits, and the application of principles to new situations. Aside from those dealing with skills, most of these tests belong, however, to the field of appraisal rather than measurement; they are diagnostic and indicative rather than quantitative and exact.

It would be unfortunate if the popularity of appraisal should lead to the neglect of exact measurement. Both should be prosecuted with persistence and insight. Appraisal will become more reliable as it makes increasing use of measurement. Eventually, of course, the two should become synonymous.

NATURE OF MEASUREMENT

Measurement is the act of making comparisons. Comparisons can readily be made by having a fixed or standardized unit of measurement. Thus an inch, a pound, a minute, and a degree of temperature are simply units which are used for the purposes of making comparisons. Suppose the carpenter needs a board which will reach from one post to another. He measures the distance between the posts; in other words, he compares the distance with a number of the units of length. Finding that the distance is six feet, he hunts for a likely looking board and measures it; that is, he compares the board with the units of length and indirectly

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with the space between the posts. In this process the carpenter reduces both the distance between the posts and the length of the board to a standardized measure, namely, the foot. This process, simple and easy as it is, is nevertheless an achievement of great consequence in the history of human progress.

By having established standards of comparison, the carpenter is able to fit the various pieces of lumber together to make a box or a house. By having established standards of comparison, assembly plants can turn out a uniform product. By having established standards of comparison, a person can know how hot or cold, how dry or humid it is, how far it is to the next town, and when to celebrate his birthday. Civilization is grounded upon measurement, upon the number and quality of its units of comparison. The ability to measure is an important element in reducing death rates, controlling crime, improving techniques of government, treating disease, making machinery, grinding lenses, and in dozens of other processes.

The essence of measurement is comparison, which in turn rests upon quantification. The pupil who is told that the area of his state is 40,000 square miles will show no interest and will have no definite idea of the area of his state unless he also knows the areas of other states. Only by comparison can a quantity become significant. Thus the comparison of quantities constitutes the heart of measurement, educational as well as all other kinds.

The person who weighs himself on a pair of scales scarcely thinks of the specific weight; his mind jumps at once to the fact that he has gained or lost five pounds, or to the realization that he is still below or above the standard recommended by the doctor. The significance of the quantity is found by comparison, comparison with a former stage or a desired stage, or comparison with some other person or with a standard which has been established. The golfer who makes a score of 87 hardly thinks of the number itself; he is pleased that his score is three less than the 90 which he shot in the preceding game, but he regrets that it is still above the 82 which he once made. The doctor pulls the thermometer from the patient's mouth and tells him that his temperature has gone down a whole degree. The significance is found, not in the exact temperature, but in the fact that it is again approaching the

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normal state. The essence of all these measures is found by making comparisons.

A particular score on a test is stated as a quantity, but it has no significance until it is compared with other scores. A score of 142 becomes significant when one notes that the next highest score is 132. The pupil who makes an 88 realizes its significance when he learns that the average score is 87.

For practical purposes educational measurement may be defined as the making of quantified comparisons among individuals, or groups, or other data. The comparisons are stated in terms of specific units of measurement. The value or accuracy of a comparison rests upon the skill, ingenuity, and integrity with which the whole group and each individual has been measured. When these conditions have been met the persons who make a particular score can be identified.

PURPOSE OF MEASUREMENT

While the act of measurement is a distinct step, it is the result of a purpose. One seldom measures the width of rooms, steps onto a pair of scales, or takes his temperature as a result of mere curiosity. Usually the act of measurement is a mere step in a series of acts, all of which are based upon a purpose and a plan. So it is with measurement in the teaching process.

In teaching one needs to know the abilities of the pupils; the best single answer is found by using an intelligence test. One needs to know whether a pupil is working up to his capacity; a partial answer is found by using a diagnostic test. For similar reasons the teacher measures objectives, units, grade placement of materials, the use of a particular map, textbook, or motion picture, teaching method, a motivating device, retention, and other factors.

The purpose is present and determines the factor to be measured. The results of the measurement are used to determine future policies and steps. The measurement itself is not the answer as to what changes should be made; it merely guides the teacher in deciding upon what should be done. Measurement thus becomes an integral part of the whole teaching process. Without it the teacher does not know how well she is succeeding.

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Without it she cannot know what element or factor is to blame in case she is not succeeding. Measurement is indispensable in any good teaching program.

In addition to being a measuring instrument, a test can also be used as teaching material. After it has served its purpose for measuring pupil achievement, it can then be used as an assignment, a drill, or a review. It then becomes a part of the *curriculum*. This use of a test is proper and correct, provided it is no longer regarded as a measuring instrument. A teacher who makes a good test, one which serves as a good measuring instrument, is justified in keeping it under lock and key and using it *only* for measurement. In fact, it is probable that she should treat all published standardized tests in this manner, for once a test has become a part of the curriculum it is no longer a test. The use of a test as teaching material destroys its value as a test for the pupils who study it. It can be used, however, as a test with other pupils, provided they have not had access to it as a learning exercise. This distinction between a test as a measuring instrument and as teaching material is fundamental for the teacher, but its practical significance for pupils in the primary and intermediate grades is probably not very great. In Grades VII and VIII the teacher is justified in using a carefully made test solely for measurement.

THE IMPERSONALITY OF MEASUREMENT

Some teachers find it hard to report scores and assign marks without being influenced by their attitude toward particular pupils. The final appraisal may consist of a number of factors, and conduct, neatness, and personality in general may properly be assigned their weight, but no teacher can justifiably confuse measurement with her likes and dislikes. Measurement is impersonal; to the extent that it is personal it is not measurement.

The teacher who picks up Mary's paper and reminds herself that Mary is a neat, bright, well-behaved child is in danger of making, not an objective appraisal of the paper, but an index of her own sympathies. The teacher who picks up John's paper and recalls his impudent manner, his untidiness, and the instance when he cheated is in danger of making, not an objective

appraisal of John's paper, but an index of her own dislikes. Measurement is utterly devoid of preference, fairness, and unfairness; it is the act or process of computing the amount or extent of a particular quantity or quality. The teacher should recognize that objectivity is the essence of measurement. In the teaching profession there is a place for sympathy, faith, and indulgence, but measurement is not that place. A teacher may choose to suppress or alter a mark, but she should do so with the full realization that something else is considered more important; there should be no confusion as to the impersonality of measurement.

ESSAY EXAMINATIONS

In a preceding section measurement was defined in terms of comparison; it results in the ascertainment of a rank order of achievement. If this is a correct interpretation of measurement, there can be no such thing as an essay examination, because it does not enable a teacher to rank pupils in the order of their performance. No teacher can read essays written under pressure and rank them in order of their merits. The best ones and the poorest ones can probably be identified with assurance, but the large number between will constitute a miscellaneous group, differentiated one from the other in only approximate order. The evidence of the unreliability of subjective marking is so overwhelming that it leaves no ground for doubt or argument.

Even though reports, term papers, essays, and subjective examinations do not fulfill the exacting standards of true measurement, they nonetheless provide valuable evidence for the general appraisal of pupils. In other words, while essay examinations are not *measurement*, they do provide data for *evaluation*. Consequently they are worthy of occasional use. In fact, every teacher of pupils in Grade IV or above should give at least an occasional essay examination. It will supply excellent *diagnostic* materials. By a careful reading of each paper the teacher can find out which pupils can write legibly, which ones can spell, construct sentences, form paragraphs, maintain a sequence of thought, and organize materials. The results of such examinations will reveal general as well as individual weaknesses. The questions should be used

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fully and thoroughly for teaching purposes. Since they have little value as a measuring instrument, the teacher sacrifices nothing by using them intensively and extensively as teaching materials.

Preceding the use of both formal and informal written exercises, the teacher should give detailed instruction in how to write. The writing of a brief account of Washington, Daniel Boone, or the trek of a nomadic tribe has great value because of both the content and the form. The teacher who demonstrates how to write and then explains the process will secure better results than the one who assumes that pupils already know how to write. Paradoxically enough, no teacher expects pupils to know the factual content of an objective test without first having had instruction, but many teachers unwarrantedly assume that pupils, almost without instruction, can handle the far more difficult job of writing a report.

The fact that essay exercises are not examinations should not lead to their neglect. Every social studies teacher owes her pupils the opportunity to write, not one, but many papers on all kinds of topics in geography, history, citizenship, and current events. Only by such exercises will they learn the exactness that marks the well-trained person. The unchangeable law of learning is that we learn what we do; so the pupil who writes a report on the effect of mountains upon the life of the people will forever have an understanding which he can acquire in no other way.

OBJECTIVE EXAMINATIONS

Objective tests have several advantages over the essay examination: they are susceptible of uniform scoring; they can be used again and again; they sample a far wider range of materials; and they provide a specific and reliable basis for ranking pupils in order. In brief, they provide an exact instead of an approximate rating.

In order to realize these advantages, however, the test must be made with great care. A poorly made, carelessly constructed test is even less reliable than an essay examination. A few essay questions can be composed as they are written on the blackboard, but the papers require hours of careful reading; whereas the ob-

jective tests require hours of preparation but only a few minutes, or even seconds, to score. The technique of making good tests is so valuable that it is worth the hours which its acquisition requires. In such a study the teacher should clarify her purpose, select the materials and phrase the items carefully, choose suitable forms, give the test under desirable conditions, and study and apply its results conscientiously.

In the field of testing one of the most encouraging developments of recent years is the increasing participation of pupils. Alert teachers have learned to respect pupil opinion of what is worth learning and testing. Pupil committees have shown considerable ingenuity in selecting materials, making test items, and in appraising the results. They have devised riddles, questions, matching exercises, completion sentences, identification of pictures and drawings, and numerous other ways of testing themselves. Teachers are learning to tap this source of motivation and teaching. It is another instance of the skillful blending of motivation, curriculum, methods, and testing. While no teacher should consign the whole measurement program to her pupils, she does well to evolve it cooperatively rather than impose it arbitrarily.

KINDS OF TESTS

Tests can be made for various purposes. They differ in nature and purpose. For example, an intelligence test is named after the entity which it purports to measure, a diagnostic test after the purpose which it serves, and a skills test after the material which is involved. While there is no consistency or logic in the terminology, one can easily secure a practical idea of the chief kinds or types from the following classification.

1. INTELLIGENCE TESTS. Intelligence tests belong to the whole field of testing and so merit no separate consideration in a treatment designed primarily for social studies teachers. Such tests involve abstract, social, and mechanical abilities. The results are sometimes used for classifying pupils and as partial bases for judging their potential capacities. In fact, the social studies teacher who expects to diagnose a pupil or to measure him on the basis of potential performance will need the results of good, re-

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liable intelligence tests. The school that fails to provide such scores is failing to meet a demonstrated need.

2. SKILLS TESTS. The degree of proficiency which a pupil has in a skill is susceptible of objective measurement. Exercises which require the use of an index, the interpretation of a graph, the reading of a map, the selection of the proper type of source, and the reading of a paragraph are easy to construct. They are among the most useful and reliable kinds of tests.

3. ACHIEVEMENT TESTS. Achievement tests are designed to measure the information and understanding which the pupil acquires from the study of content. Such a test should be based wholly upon what the pupil studies. Performance upon an achievement test reflects intelligence, industry, the fitness of the curriculum, and the quality of teaching, but its primary function is to measure progress in the study of a particular unit or subject.

4. ATTITUDE TESTS. An attitude test is designed to ascertain how a pupil feels about a particular topic, idea, or institution. This kind of test is difficult to make and rather untrustworthy after it is made. There are two obstacles to its success. One cannot be sure that the pupil answers with sincerity, and even if he does, his actual conduct may not be in harmony with his theory of how he would act. For example, an item calling for a pupil's attitude toward Negroes may or may not be answered sincerely. Even if the pupil is sincere, his actions may belie his theory. So the results of an attitude test may be two stages removed from actuality. This fact emphasizes the need of case studies, records of conduct, and other types of evaluation which cannot be based upon formal tests.

5. DIAGNOSTIC TESTS. A diagnostic test is designed to find out whether or not a pupil or class is performing according to justifiable expectations. If the quality of work is not up to standard, the diagnostic test is supposed to disclose the reason. It is not very different in form from an achievement test, but the teacher uses the diagnostic test, not primarily for the purpose of measurement, but primarily to discover faults and weaknesses. Such a test should therefore be used as teaching material; its items may well become a part of the curriculum. It may properly be made into a teaching test.

6. TEACHING TESTS. A test which is used primarily for teaching purposes is not really a measuring instrument. It may be introduced as a test and the scores may be used as motivating devices. The items then become a part of the curriculum and cease to be used for measurement. Thus testing becomes a step in teaching and loses its aspect of pure measurement.

CRITERIA OF A GOOD TEST

A good test possesses *validity*, the capacity to measure what it purports to measure. A valid test of the understanding of chronology must deal with dates, periods, sequence, and anachronisms. A valid test of skills should call only for their exercise. Validity is a specific quality, applicable to a test for a particular purpose. A good intelligence test cannot also be a good measure of historical information. A test which is valid for Grade IV may be invalid for Grade VII. No test with general validity for all purposes can be constructed.

A good test is *reliable*; it must perform consistently with similar groups or with the same group when it is repeated, allowing, of course, for the effects of practice. Reliability is usually computed in terms of the correlation between odd and even items. So reliability is a measure of internal consistency as well as consistency of performance with groups.

A good test is *practical*, requiring a minimum of effort to administer, score, and interpret. The cost may also be considered as a part of its practicality.

A good social studies test is *pertinent* to the field; it deals only indirectly with science, nature study, arithmetic, etc. On the contrary, it deals with the acquisition of pertinent information, skills, and abilities.

A good social studies test is properly *graded* to the level of pupil maturity and achievement. Giving a sixth-grade test to a fourth-grade class is uneconomical and probably tends to discourage the pupils.

A good test is *clear*. The pupil will not need to ask questions or wonder what is expected, for both the directions and the items will be unequivocal.

A good test provides an *adequate sampling* of the field, subject,

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unit, topic, or quality which it measures. It is well to select items which range over wide areas of the materials; it is also well to have several items on one particular aspect. For example, a test on the products of the United States would touch on all the main ones and place special emphasis on one particular industry. Thus a test may be both extensive and intensive.

A good test is *objective*. It affords the same results no matter who scores the papers. It thus becomes impersonal and the pupils accept the results in the same spirit with which they accept the results of the yardstick, scales, or a thermometer.

ITEM FORMS

The most important forms of items are:

1. Completion (recall, listing, short-answer)
2. Multiple-choice (reverse multiple-choice, best-answer)
3. Matching
4. Sequence (according to date, size, importance, etc.)
5. True-false

Each of these forms has its advantages and limitations. The teacher should guard against falling into the habit of using only one or two forms. Each of them, with the possible exception of the true-false, deserves repeated use.

1. **COMPLETION.** The completion form should be used when the answer is (a) a proper name, (b) a date, or (c) a quantity.

1. The hero during the early days of Jamestown was _____.
2. Jamestown was settled in the year _____.
3. An amendment to the Constitution requires the approval of _____ of the state legislatures.

The completion form should not be used when the answer is a common word.

1. Early settlers built their houses with _____.
2. A person who fails to work is said to be _____.
3. The most important agency in transportation is the _____.

The first item could be answered with "logs," "boards," "dirt," "sod," or "stones"; the second one could be completed by "different," "lazy," "stubborn," "rich," or "stupid"; the third

one by "highway," "canal," "railroad," or "ship." The use of the completion form in such instances destroys its objectivity and so the person who scores the test will have endless and unsolvable problems of scoring. The completion form is the most reliable of all forms, but it should be used only when the answer is definite and unequivocal and when it is significant enough to merit outright recall, for the completion form is also the most difficult in that it provides no help; it only states the problem or question. Observance of the following rules will insure the making of satisfactory completion items.

1. Use the completion form when there is only one correct answer.
2. Use the completion form when the answer is a proper name, specialized word, date, or quantity.
3. The statement may be in the form of a direct question as well as an incomplete statement.
4. Give no clues, such as "Fort _____," "King _____," or by the use of "a" or "an."
5. Ordinarily have only one blank in a statement. Such an item as "In _____ Daniel Boone and _____ started from _____ and went to _____" is a puzzle and not a test item.
6. Avoid such dragnet items as "Name a Spanish explorer _____," or "Brazil exports _____."

2. MULTIPLE-CHOICE. The multiple-choice item contains three or more options, one of which is correct, the others being erroneous or inadequate. This test form has three variations: the reverse multiple-choice in which all except one of the options are correct, the problem being to identify the one *wrong* answer; the best-answer form in which all the options have some degree of correctness but only one is universally correct or best; and the multiple-response form in which the pupil is asked to check more than one correct answer.

The multiple-choice form can be used instead of the completion when only *recognition* rather than *recall* is expected.

The capital of Ohio is (1) Columbus, (2) Toledo, (3) Cleveland, (4) Cincinnati, (5) Zanesville.

Within the state of Ohio this item would be pointless, because every pupil would be expected to know the capital. It should

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therefore be turned into a simple completion. Outside the state, however, pupils might be expected to *recognize* but not *recall* the capital of Ohio. So the use of the multiple-choice depends somewhat upon the degree of learning expected.

The multiple-choice form is useful in testing attitudes or interests.

If I had my choice of seeing only one of the following I would choose
(1) an art museum, (2) a library, (3) a picture show, (4) a circus,
(5) a large industrial plant.

The form is also useful when approximations rather than exact quantities are desirable.

The population of Mexico is about (1) 5,000,000 (2) 10,000,000
(3) 15,000,000 (4) 20,000,000 (5) 25,000,000.

The reverse multiple-choice calls for a careful consideration of each item. The pupil can seldom *spot* the answer as he can in a multiple-choice, but must consider each option and accept or reject it before arriving finally at the one which is incorrect.

Some of the Presidents of the United States were (1) Adams, (2) Polk,
(3) Clay, (4) Grant, (5) Wilson.

The multiple-response form is confusing and puzzlesome. It is tolerable if the pupil is told that there are *two* correct answers in each item. But to be told that he should mark one or more items as correct is an unjustified assignment, especially for pupils in the elementary grades.

The best-answer version of the multiple-choice is excellent for measuring discrimination. It calls for thoughtful insight and so is probably the best objective form for definitions and judgments.

A written agreement between two countries is called (1) a truce, (2) an armistice, (3) a concordat, (4) an alliance, (5) a treaty.

Here, the pupil is bound to see that any one of these options *could* be true, but that number 5 is the most *inclusive* and *frequent*. It is the *best* answer.

The following rules will be of help in making good multiple-choice items.

TECHNIQUES OF MEASUREMENT

1. Use the multiple-choice for measuring discrimination or insight, particularly for testing understanding of concepts.
2. Use the multiple-choice form for information only when recognition is expected. For outright recall use the completion form.
3. Do not put in foolish or unworking options. Make all of them realistic.
4. Append no qualifying or additional word after the options. Have them at the end of the statement.
5. Avoid textbook phrases and well-known expressions in the correct option. They may properly appear in the foils.
6. Phrase the foils as carefully as you do the correct response.
7. If the correct answer must be long, make some of the options long.
8. Avoid clues in the opening clause, such as words or phrases which appear in the correct option.
9. See that the introduction and all the options agree in number, person, and tense.
10. Keep all options in the same category. Do not mix persons and places, ideas and things.
11. Do not use the multiple-choice when only two options are available, such as east . . . west, more . . . less, strong . . . weak, etc.
12. Never use fewer than three options. Five seems to be the ideal number.
13. State items clearly; otherwise they become tests of reading ability.
14. In informal tests do not set time limits.
15. Do not penalize guessing. Count the score by ascertaining the number of correct items.
16. Scatter the correct option from 1 to 5. If any system for distributing it is used, see that it is not easily discoverable.
17. Make the introduction complete enough in thought so that the pupil will know the nature of the answer.

3. **MATCHING.** The matching test may involve the association of causes and effects, persons and achievements, dates and events, places and areas, and similar relationships. The form is also useful for classifying data under specific categories.

1. _____	Longfellow	a. Inventor
2. _____	Fulton	b. Writer
3. _____	Clay	c. Statesman
4. _____	Watt	
5. _____	Poe	

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In the above illustration the numbers may be used more than once. The typical matching item for elementary pupils should consist of three versus five items, with two unused options.

1. _____ Pacific Ocean	a. DeSoto
2. _____ Florida	b. Balboa
3. _____ Mississippi River	c. Coronado
	d. Pizarro
	e. Ponce de Leon

Matching items are relatively easy to make and can be scored with complete objectivity. By having a surplus of unused options the form minimizes the element of guessing. Observance of the following precautions will insure valid matching items.

1. Number as an item only those which call for checking or completing. The list which contains the surplus options should be lettered.
2. Keep the number of items relatively small. Long lists become puzzling.
3. List two or three nonworking foils to minimize guessing.
4. Choose only options which could conceivably be used; otherwise the surplus ones are not real foils.
5. Do not use the matching form to test for simple information.

4. SEQUENCE. There are many occasions in dealing with social studies materials when a sequence of time, size, location, importance, or other kind of order is important. Arranging the sequence of wars, men, or inventions constitutes a good item for the upper grades. The relative locations from east to west, or some such order, and the relative areas of countries or states, and the relative sizes of cities also provide measurable materials.

In a list of important items the pupil may very properly be asked to indicate the *first* and the *last*. It is seldom profitable to ask him to number five or more events in the order of their occurrence. Such an exercise is difficult and also requires an involved scoring procedure. One of the simplest arrangements of the sequence type of item is to use three items and ask the pupil to mark only the first in order of time, size, or whatever characteristic is being sought.

5. TRUE-FALSE. The true-false form is useful in science and seems to be valid and reliable. In the social studies, however, it

is of very dubious utility. If a statement is clearly true or false, the item can be made into a completion type. If it is debatable, it cannot be reliably marked either true or false.

1. Columbus discovered America in 1492. T F

Obviously this is an absurd form for this question. If the pupil is expected to know the fact, it should be stated as a completion.

2. Slavery was the cause of the Civil War. T F

This statement contains a large element of truth, but it is also an oversimplification of the event. No well-informed person could mark it either *true* or *false* without being troubled at the necessity of making such a choice.

The true-false type cannot deal economically or reliably with information, and when a statement is obviously true or false it is merely a statement of fact. When it deals with matters of importance it almost inevitably borders on the controversial. The social studies teacher will probably make better tests if she avoids it altogether in dealing with content. The true-false type has considerable value, however, in identifying interests and attitudes.

SOURCES OF TESTS

Most of the tests in the social studies and in the various subjects were designed for the high school grades. Consequently the list given below is not very extensive. One or two deserve special mention. The Wesley and Anderson *Mastery Tests in American History* (Macmillan) have forms for the intermediate and junior high school. The items were derived from the report on *American History in Schools and Colleges* in which specific names, dates, events, and concepts were listed as minimum essentials. The idea of these "mastery" tests is that each pupil should take and repeat them until he secures a perfect score. They are put out in pads of about thirty tests.

The Educational Test Bureau (Minneapolis, Nashville, Philadelphia) publishes the *Unit Scales of Attainment*, a battery of tests in the various subjects. The ones in American history and geography are factual and specific. The company furnishes complete data and so a teacher can easily ascertain the relative performance of her class.

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Acorn Publishing Company, Rockville Center, N.Y., publishes three geography tests, one for Grades III-VI, and two for Grades VI-VIII; two American history-civics tests, one for Grades III-VI, and one for Grades VI-VIII; a test in American history for Grades VII-IX; and three tests in social studies for Grades IV-IX.

For testing skills, every teacher should own a copy of Morse and McCune, *Selected Items for the Testing of Study Skills* (Bulletin 15, revised edition, 1949). This publication of the National Council for the Social Studies authorizes teachers to use such items as they wish. The most practicable way to use this bulletin is to incorporate items from it into a test which the teacher makes. While many of the items are for high school students, the authors provide specific directions for making items; and so the elementary teacher will find this bulletin provides both direct and indirect help.

For a similar reservoir of test items in American history, see the companion Bulletin 6, National Council for the Social Studies, by Anderson and Lundquist.

The Mental Measurement Yearbook (New Brunswick: Rutgers University Press, Oscar K. Buros, ed.) provides extensive reviews of both intelligence and achievement tests. It thus enables teachers to locate and appraise a great number of tests.

It is well for the teacher to secure catalogues from the following publishers, for all of them publish many tests, some of which are adjusted to the elementary grades.

California Test Bureau, Los Angeles

Cooperative Test Service, 15 Amsterdam Avenue, New York

Houghton Mifflin Co., Boston

Iowa State University, Iowa City

McKnight and McKnight, Bloomington, Ill.

National Council for the Social Studies, 1201 Sixteenth St., N.W., Washington, D.C.

Public School Publishing Company, Bloomington, Ill.

World Book Company, Yonkers, N.Y.

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BUROS, OSCAR K., ed., *The Third Mental Measurement Yearbook*.
New Brunswick: Rutgers University Press, 1949.

TECHNIQUES OF MEASUREMENT

This annual encyclopedia of tests contains detailed descriptions and reviews of social studies tests. Worthy of frequent use.

EARLY, LEO J., "A Pupil-made Test in Social Science," *Elementary School Journal*, 43:29-32, September, 1942.

The author refers, of course, to a *social studies* test. A class made its own test covering a unit on Mexico. Each of four groups made items of a particular type. The best group made multiple-choice items, and in descending order, matching, completion, and true-false. While the results did not markedly change the ranking of pupils, the experience did improve their attitude toward tests.

GALFORD, MARY, "Socialized Geography Tests," *Journal of Geography*, 40:259-261, October, 1941.

Presents specimen text exercises.

GORMAN, FRANK H., "Non-Reading Testing Procedures in the Social Studies," *Social Education*, 11:118-119, March, 1947.

Gives three reasons why non-reading procedures should be used. Presents a few specific examples of how to construct such tests.

GREENE, HARRY A., and OTHERS, *Measurement and Evaluation in the Elementary School*. New York: Longmans, Green, 1942.

Stresses tests and measurement rather than evaluation. Cites useful materials for use in social studies.

HAWKES, HERBERT E., LINDQUIST, E. F., and MANN, C. R., eds., *The Construction and Use of Achievement Examinations*. Boston: Houghton Mifflin, 1936.

Chapter IV, devoted to the social studies and written by Howard Anderson, is a penetrating discussion of the faults of existing tests; contains practical suggestions on item construction. Chapters II and III are also worthy of careful attention.

MORSE, HORACE T., and McCUNE, GEORGE H., *Selected Items for the Testing of Study Skills*, Bulletin No. 15, revised edition. National Council for the Social Studies, Washington, 1949.

Perhaps this is the most ambitious attempt to devise ways of testing the rather intangible skills involved in the social studies. Excellent techniques and helpful suggestions. The exercises on abbreviations, difficulty of proof, circle graphs, and use of standard references are particularly appropriate for elementary classes.

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PARK, JOE, "An Analysis of Standardized American History Tests," *The Social Studies*, 35:267-269, October, 1944.

Shows that extant tests do not include the minimum content recommended by the Committee on American History in Schools and Colleges.

REMMERS, H. H., and GAGE, N. L., *Educational Measurement and Evaluation*. New York: Harper, 1943.

Deals with physical and social development. Stresses measurement rather than appraisal.

WESLEY, EDGAR B., "Diagnosis in the Social Studies," *Thirty-fourth Yearbook* (1935) of the National Society for the Study of Education, 303-330.

The most extensive treatment devoted exclusively to diagnosis in the social studies; stresses observations and records, however, rather than tests; tests as a means of diagnosis deserve more emphasis than they receive in this discussion.

25. TECHNIQUES OF APPRAISAL

GROWING EMPHASIS ON APPRAISAL

Evaluation is the attempt to determine the extent of progress toward objectives. It is the inclusive term, being composed of measurement (considered in the preceding chapter) and appraisal. Appraisal is naturally subjective, but it is nonetheless based upon substantial data, such as attitude tests, rating scales, observations, and various other nonquantitative techniques which are described in this chapter.

The trend in elementary social studies is toward the greater use of nonquantitative techniques. Since this trend involves the extensive exercise of judgment, opinion, and interpretation, it has naturally and logically led to pupil participation in evaluation. Instead of being the lone objects of testing, the pupils have become participants in making appraisals of the curriculum, methods, and procedures, as well as of the quality of their own performance.

Since evaluation has come to mean more than periodic inventories, it has been woven more closely and extensively into the whole teaching and learning process. It has lost its forbidding aspects and has become a constant guide, adviser, and appraiser. Opinions and subjective appraisals operate continually; thus teachers and pupils can redirect their efforts at almost any stage. Both pupils and teacher are constantly reacting to the felt, even though unexpressed, question of how well they are succeeding. The answer to the question indicates the desirability of persisting or of making changes that seem more likely to insure success.

It is too early to predict whether this movement toward appraisal will result in better teaching and learning, but it is sig-

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nificant that its greatest popularity is in the field of the social studies. It is thus even possible that exact measurement should continue to operate in arithmetic and science, and a more flexible, informal, and subjective evaluation should predominate in the complex field of human relations.

THE PRINCIPAL TECHNIQUES

The techniques for appraisal or subjective evaluation are numerous and varied. They fall naturally into two categories, tests and devices. Tests that reveal interests, personality traits, preferences, beliefs, and attitudes provide data for understanding children. Such tests should be used with a keen awareness that the results are unique rather than general. The object is not so much to survey *children* as to diagnose a particular *child*. Consequently the scores on such tests should not be compared or confused with scores on achievement tests.

Tests of interests, personality traits, social attitudes, etc., provide data which can be utilized in the educational process. The results enable the teacher to choose pertinent units, to modify her expectations of a particular pupil, to give encouragement and guidance to another, and to provide further experiences for the whole group. Such tests are diagnostic, indicative, and advisory rather than directive and compelling.

The second group of appraisal techniques is called devices. Several of them were described in connection with child study (see Chapter 5). A rather full list of devices is presented below. It will be noted that they supplement and overlap. For example, number 10, "Observations," may depend upon or utilize numbers 11 and 12. Discussion is a device for both teachers and pupils. The list should serve as a suggestive reservoir from which the teacher can select and adopt those which seem practicable.

DEVICES FOR APPRAISAL

1. School-administered
 1. Cumulative records
 2. Attendance
 3. Records of case studies
 4. Health records

II. Teacher-applied

- 5. Interviews
- 6. Teacher-class discussion
- 7. Teacher-class appraisals
- 8. Case studies
- 9. Check lists
- 10. Observations
- 11. Rating scales
- 12. Inventories
- 13. Questionnaires
- 14. Activity records
- 15. Stenographic records
- 16. Samples of work
- 17. Sociometric inventory
- 18. Sociograms
- 19. Anecdotal records
- 20. Behavior records
- 21. Graphs
- 22. Profiles

III. Pupil-initiated

- 23. Group-evolved standards
- 24. Class log book
- 25. Discussions
- 26. Diaries
- 27. Autobiographies
- 28. Collections
- 29. Scrapbooks
- 30. Bulletin boards
- 31. Construction projects
- 32. Art projects
- 33. Group activities

The foregoing devices are divided according to the prime appraiser — the school administration, the teacher, or the pupils. The school appraisals are compiled by counselors, visiting teachers, nurses, doctors, principals, teachers, and other professional personnel. The school office serves as custodian of the records and makes them available for authorized persons. Perhaps its greatest contribution to evaluation is its selection and maintenance of cumulative records. These should be full and yet concrete in nature; they should accompany the child as he progresses from grade to grade, thus providing the information that will help to promote his progress.

The teacher-applied techniques are numerous and varied. From the available list she can select those most suitable for frequent use. For example, she may choose to make large use of number 10, "Observations." But the best results from observations can be secured by also using check lists, inventories, activity records, and other devices. For the purpose of recording, she can make use of anecdotal records, graphs, and profiles. Many schools provide forms for some of these informal evaluation procedures, and others can readily be devised.

Pupil devices for evaluation are becoming more plentiful. Those listed above are suggestive; others can be evolved and

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III. TOLERATION

1. Is he kind to classmates and neighbors?
2. Does he include shy and unpopular children in his games and committees?
3. Does he respect the opinions of others?
4. Can he discuss issues in a tolerant manner?
5. Does he treat pupils who are "different" in a natural way?
6. Is he class conscious or condescending?

IV. SKILLS

1. Can he read and study effectively?
2. Can he find and appraise materials?
3. Can he talk and write effectively?
4. Can he work cooperatively?
5. Can he utilize pictures, graphs, and other devices effectively?

V. INFORMATION

1. Does he know and remember relevant information?
2. Does he keep up with current events?
3. Does he do well in all fields?
4. Can he analyze a problem?
5. Does he know how to select important information?
6. Can he organize information?
7. Does he know something of his preferred vocation?

VI. MATURITY

1. Can he suspend judgment?
2. Can he interpret data?
3. Can he apply a generalization?
4. Can he detect a relationship?
5. Can he follow a sequence?
6. Can he synthesize parts into a whole?
7. Can he discriminate between facts and opinions?
8. Can he criticize materials?
9. Can he detect contradictions and inconsistencies?
10. Can he select the major issues in a problem?
11. Is he working up to the level of his capacity?
12. Is he thorough and efficient?

VII. PERSONALITY

1. Has he a normal outlook?
2. Is he morose, moody, critical, or belligerent?

3. Is he shy, backward, timid, or solitary?
4. Is he conscientious?
5. Does he accept responsibilities?
6. Is he self-sufficient or dependent?
7. Can he play and work naturally with others?

APPRAISING CONDUCT

The recent attempts to evaluate pupils by making records of their conduct promise interesting and tangible results. The difficulty so far has been to standardize the records and get comparable data. The typical teacher tends to write down vague phrases such as "gentlemanly manners," "courteous bearing," "polite manners," and other generalizations which may or may not be based upon concrete instances. The accurate evaluation of conduct requires a knowledge of specific reactions to specific situations.

General objectives of behavior, such as the following, can easily be listed

1. To respect the rights of others
2. To be helpful to others
3. To respect older persons
4. To be courteous
5. To obey rules and regulations
6. To respect property
7. To treat animals kindly
8. To be prompt
9. To play fairly
10. To care for books and equipment

The measurement of the actual achievement of a particular pupil toward the performance of these ideals rests, or at least should rest, upon the teacher's knowledge of concrete instances. It is not enough, for example, to have the impression that A plays fairly or that B is careful of his own books. This impression of A should rest upon (1) the time when he confessed that his foot was actually not on the base as the first baseman caught the ball, (2) the time when he insisted upon B's acceptance of the umpire's decision, and (3) the time when he gave his place to C who had not had a chance to play. Perhaps even more than three

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instances are necessary to justify a final conclusion as to the presence or absence of a particular characteristic. The appraisal of the pupil's behavior will be more reliable when the teacher learns how to make objective, descriptive, and anecdotal records.

In fact, there should be no final conclusion in the measurement and evaluation of pupil behavior. The school is set up for the purpose of modifying behavior, and if a teacher assumes that the pattern of a pupil's behavior is fixed and unmodifiable, he should probably cease to be a teacher.

Conduct or behavior in its broadest sense includes almost all aspects of the life of the pupil, whereas the word is ordinarily restricted to observable actions involving other persons directly or indirectly. Even though we had satisfactory techniques for measuring this aspect in all its ramifications, we should still have to resort to conjectures to explain the motives and capacities behind conduct.

A PROGRAM OF EVALUATION

The following table is designed to indicate a rather ambitious program of evaluation, employing both measurement and appraisal, with some suggested techniques. It will be noted that some but by no means all the techniques are objective. And not all the tests necessary for measuring the elements are available. Some types of check lists and record blanks exist only in a very informal way. The resourceful teacher who has the time and energy can overcome many of these deficiencies and devise accurate, impersonal, and objective schemes for evaluating his work. Naturally, the teacher must divest himself of the notion that the results of all these measurements should be reflected in school marks. He should regard some of the results as indices of the quality of the curriculum and of instruction rather than as measures of pupil performance.

ENTITY	TECHNIQUES OF EVALUATION
1. Equipment	Isolate the factor, e.g., maps, and measure by means of matched groups; record performances inspired by the use of the equipment being evaluated; pupil and teacher opinion of its value

TECHNIQUES OF APPRAISAL

2. Method Pupil opinions of the two methods being compared; matched groups taught by different methods; teacher opinion of the value of the methods; extent of pupil interest
3. Grading Relative performance of two or more successive grades; relative performance of three or four grades; difficulty of the material as estimated by pupils, by teachers; varying performance by pupils
4. Organization Pupil preferences and reactions; pupil achievement; logic and appeal of the organization to teachers
5. Teacher Self-rating scales; supervisor's ratings; pupil performance on tests; pupil conduct in the opinions of other teachers; teacher's performance on teacher examinations; popularity of the teacher among pupils, among colleagues; teacher's achievements in publication, travel, professional activity, community services, and in reading
6. Concepts Ability to give examples; ability to choose correct or best definition; ability to give a definition; ability to match with an example or a definition; presence or absence of the word in the pupil's speaking and writing vocabulary; pupil-made lists of synonyms, of words by categories, and of other assigned patterns of words; measurement of the number of connotations which pupils know
7. Locating materials Observations of pupils in search of materials; tests of familiarity with selected books, references, and bibliographies; time tests of skill in using index, table of contents, title page, and card catalogue and in finding words in dictionary and articles in encyclopedia; tests of discrimination in choice of sources for finding answers to given questions
8. Appraising materials Ability to distinguish between sources and secondary accounts, to sense degrees of reliability, to sense degrees of probability; ability to recognize authorities; lists of books read, shows attended, radio programs selected, lectures attended; tests involving attitude toward superstitions; tests for sensitivity to inconsistencies; ability to distinguish fact from opinion; the degree of difficulty in proving different kinds of

EVALUATING THE OUTCOMES

statements; tests involving the recognition of the tentative nature of conclusions and generalizations in the social studies; awareness of conflicting testimony; ability to select kinds of data needed for a particular problem; ability to suspend judgment

9. Studying materials Ability to select leading ideas; recognition of symbols, abbreviations, and allusions; method and speed of locating a place on a map; ability to select the right kind of map for a given purpose; knowledge of the function of colors in maps; familiarity with longitude and latitude; completion exercises in map-reading; exercises in interpreting cartoons, graphs, and tables

10. Utilizing materials Ability to select the proper deduction following a generalization; ability to make a logical inference, draw a proper conclusion, state a generalization; ability to make correct citations and bibliographies; ability to organize materials; ability to recognize sequences, to establish causal relationships; ability to select proper kind of graph to embody given materials; ability to put a group of headings in proper relationship

11. Interests Observation of choice of books from a varied assortment; observations of those portions of a newspaper which are being read after two minutes; observations of subjects of magazine articles being read after five minutes; the content of pupil conversations; choice of projects and problems; games played; questionnaires; shows attended; record of hobbies; radio programs heard

12. Cooperation Check lists of instances of voluntary cooperation; check lists with graded levels for indicating the quality of cooperation; lists of achievements which are the result of joint enterprises; the number and efficacy of typical pupil-managed organizations; check lists of observance of courteous demeanor; tests of attitude toward cooperation

13. Suspended judgment A test consisting of sets of statements followed by conclusions of which some are warranted and others unwarranted; tests to measure the change of opinions after hearing a speech, seeing a show, reading a book; tests to see if pupils will refrain from forming judgments on insufficient bases

14. Toleration Tests on racial and religious toleration; a check list of instances of favorable and unfavorable treatment of minorities, such as foreigners, Negroes, etc., in the school

This proposed program is by no means complete. It does, however, indicate the desirability of measuring far more activities than have yet been measured. Not only this program, but a far more inclusive one, will have to be developed and carried out before we as teachers will know the full results of our efforts.

Great progress in informal evaluation may be expected. As teachers and pupils endeavor to appraise their progress they will naturally develop more and more usable devices. While many of these are already available in courses of study and in educational writings, they are not readily available in sufficient numbers. Whoever develops devices that are widely applicable may find that he is supplying a growing need, not only in the social studies, but in the whole field of education.

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Shows how intergroup education can be improved by use of the sociogram, a chart designed to reveal natural friendship choices and rejections among pupils. Graphs and tables are used to show the influence of the father's occupation, religion, and residential stability upon a child's popularity among his classmates. As a diagnostic device the sociogram gives clearer insight into group patterns and points to ways of promoting tolerance and understanding among the pupils. It also aids in promoting the social adjustment of individual pupils.

BALDWIN, JAMES W., "Recent Developments in Social Studies Evaluation," *Social Education*, 11:74-76, February, 1947.

Describes trends in evaluation and testing. Notes the increased use of rating scales, anecdotal records, and self-appraisal inventories.

BURTON, WILLIAM H., *The Guidance of Learning Activities*. New York: Appleton-Century, 1944.

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Chapter 17 presents a critical review of what can be appraised. Should be read as a check upon the too frequent assumption that traits and attitudes can be appraised reliably.

COREY, STEPHEN M., "Measuring Attitudes in the Classroom," *Elementary School Journal*, 43:457-461, April, 1943.

Explains a plan for constructing and administering an attitudes test. First, collect statements expressing a decided attitude toward the subject concerned. Second, select usable statements from those collected, eliminating statements of fact, and ambiguous and "double-barreled" statements. Third, administer the questionnaire, either orally or in mimeographed form, having the students indicate agreement, strong agreement, disagreement, or strong disagreement. In scoring the questionnaire weight the responses so that a high score will result from strong agreement or favorable response and a low score will indicate strong disagreement or unfavorable response. Teachers may use the same questionnaire a second time, provided several weeks elapse between first and second markings.

HAMALAINEN, ARTHUR E., "Existing Practices in the Evaluation of Pupil Growth in the Elementary School," *Elementary School Journal*, 42:175-183, November, 1941.

A full report on the goals, techniques, and records recommended by a committee in New York State. Thoughtful and helpful in making and evaluating the curriculum as well as in the study of child growth.

HARLESS, BYRON B., "Recording Social Behavior," *Social Education*, 4:160-164, March, 1940.

Gives forms and specimen records of pupil behavior. Teachers obtained better and more reliable data about pupils. Objectivity of observation and discrimination in selecting the incidents to be recorded are stressed.

SMITH, GLADYS H., "Sociometric Study of Best-Liked and Least-Liked Children," *Elementary School Journal*, 51:77-85, October, 1950.

Describes, with the aid of tables and charts, the use of sociograms in discovering the reasons why some children are liked and others disliked by their classmates. Suggests that programs be planned to help parents recognize children's need for happiness in the home; also that

teachers make use of sociograms as guides in helping their pupils to grow in ability and to achieve social acceptance among other children.

STORM, GRACE E., "Primary Teachers, Evaluate Your Methods!" *Instructor*, 52:20, 69, February, 1943.

Provides criteria for evaluating methods in the social studies.

A. GLOSSARY OF SOCIAL STUDIES TERMS

achievement Specific accomplishment which can be evaluated. Constitutes the most widely used basis for school marks.

activities Overt actions by pupils in connection with learning. May be subjective in nature but more frequently regarded as discernible behavior.

appraisal A form or kind of evaluation. Based upon informal tests, check lists, observations, opinions, and other somewhat subjective data. Conclusions are approximations and not quantities.

areas of living Geographical, functional, or topical divisions for constructing a curriculum. Closely related to processes, themes, concepts, and problems.

assimilation The period of study in the unit method during which students read, study, report, construct, and carry on varied activities designed to promote learning.

behavior Conduct which is regarded as the result of learning. Measurable or observable human actions.

block method A teaching plan which consists of three or four levels of assignment in order to provide for individual differences.

child-centered An adjective used to describe the school and the curriculum which derive their principles from a study of the child rather than from a study of society or the social heritage.

chronology The arrangement of time in a labeled sequence using such designations as century, decade, and specific dates. Chronology is formalized time.

citizenship The quality of being able and willing to participate in governmental affairs, or more broadly, in all kinds of civic, community, and public life.

civic education A program designed to develop citizenship.

common learnings A term applied to (1) a fusion of English and social studies, (2) to a program based upon the personal and social problems of youth, and (3) to a general program based upon basic, widespread needs as distinguished from specialized needs. Closely related to core curriculum and general education.

community resources Those institutions, industries, organizations, and other entities in the local environment which can be utilized in teaching. Sometimes used to include persons.

GLOSSARY OF SOCIAL STUDIES TERMS

completion test A test item calling for the information necessary to fill a gap. Completion is also used with the word *exercises* to indicate a type of reading or study guide.

concept The generalized and inclusive range in the meaning of a word. Usually an abstract category. Concept also used in curriculum making as a synonym of area, process, and needs, often appearing as the phrase "basic concepts."

concomitant outcomes Parallel or simultaneous learnings; those which are not the specific objectives at a particular time. Such outcomes may be desirable or undesirable.

contemporary affairs The study of current events, issues, problems, trends, and developments. Used to indicate a wider scope than current events. Related to world affairs and international relations.

content The factual or informational material used in instruction. Differentiated from activity and experience.

controversial issues Those public questions about which there are sharp differences of opinion. Related to problems, solved and unsolved.

core curriculum That part of the school program which is required of all students on the assumption that it provides for modal needs. Closely related to common learnings and general education.

correlation The establishing of relationships among subjects, either randomly or by a prearranged plan.

critical thinking Discriminating and cautious judgment. Also refers to a topic of instruction in the social studies.

culminating activity The closing demonstration or exercise which marks the completion of the teaching of a unit or project.

culture epoch theory The idea that each individual evolves through stages of growth paralleling those through which the human race has gone. A scheme for arranging and grading materials. Formerly important, the theory is now discredited.

current events Also called current affairs. The study of contemporary happenings. Has achieved almost the status of a school subject. Related to contemporary affairs and events, international relations, and world affairs.

curriculum Those pupil experiences that are selected and directed

EVALUATING THE OUTCOMES

horizontal integration The plan for seeing that the studies at any particular grade level are interrelated and appropriate for that level.

human relations Used to denote the study of social relations with particular emphasis upon minorities and differences. Closely related to intercultural education.

individual differences The variations that exist among individuals. Long regarded as a problem, more recently it has been considered as an asset. There is a vast amount of literature on how to deal with these differences.

individual variability The range of aptitudes and abilities that characterize a particular person.

in-service training Procedures through which a teacher increases his competence while teaching.

institution or social institution A structured set of relationships holding people together for a specified purpose. Home, school, church, government, and business are the most frequently mentioned institutions.

integration Process or result of interrelating two hitherto separated topics, subjects, or fields. A stronger term than correlation and not so thoroughgoing as fusion or unification.

intercultural education The program of instruction designed to lessen racial and group prejudices. Emphasizes attention to contributions of all groups.

laboratory method A process of teaching which places stress upon materials and their immediate availability for classes.

learnability Criterion for selecting social studies content. Has suggestive value but affords no specific guidance.

learning The process of readjusting behavior in the light of new information, insight, or understanding. Differs from experience in that it is based upon and utilizes experience but is not identified with it. Often used in conjunction with such words as *experiences, activities, aids, procedures, skills, etc.*

matching item That form of testing in which the elements are arranged in two columns, usually of unequal integers, and the testee is asked to associate the proper element.

materials Printed supplies, such as books; the unarranged contents of a curriculum; inert elements of a larger entity.

GLOSSARY OF SOCIAL STUDIES TERMS

maturation Process of and the state of advancement in growth, development, or time.

measurement Act or process of making quantified comparisons by means of a set of standards or intervals. Refers to testing rather than judging, appraising, or estimating.

mental test That type designed to measure intellectual capacity or achievement rather than other aspects of personality.

method A structured or systematized procedure for carrying on instruction; more inclusive than device and more general than technique.

minimum essentials Those irreducible elements which are necessary for social acceptability; does not mean the irreducibles for comprehending or understanding.

motivation Inner urge to do something; sometimes identified with the act or process of providing an incentive which is inwardly transformed into a purpose. Often used with intrinsic and extrinsic.

multiple-choice test That form of item in which the testee completes the item by choosing from among the various options provided.

objective The purpose, aim, ideal, value, or direction of teaching and learning; not to be confused with achievement, outcome, attainment, realization, or goal which are the standards or measures of progress toward objectives.

objective test That form of measuring which is susceptible of quantification. Logically the phrase is an example of tautology, for a so-called test that is not susceptible of quantification is not a test.

organization Form or structure in which curricular materials are arranged in order to facilitate teaching and learning.

outcomes The results of instruction. Similar to standard of achievement, goal, and attainment. Not to be confused with objective, purpose, aim, or value.

overview An introductory summary, digest, or synopsis.

personality The sum total of individual traits; the totality of characteristics which differentiate one individual from another; a kind of index of social acceptability.

persuasion materials A broader, somewhat euphemistic term for

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propaganda, having the advantage of not necessarily being undesirable.

presentation The second step in the unit method, consisting of an overview of the whole procedure and its outcomes.

problem An unanswered question, unsatisfied need, or unsatisfactory situation which leads to study, research, or action. The problem may be personal or social, solvable or unsolvable. Differs from a topic by presenting a challenge.

process or social process Fundamental human activities, such as making a living, engaging in recreation, securing an education. Used as criteria for selecting units and contents.

project A process of learning characterized by overt activities; also associated with method.

propaganda Spoken, printed, or pictured materials designed to influence opinion and conduct. Its favorable connotation predominated for centuries, but its somewhat recent distortion has shifted the connotation to its undesirable aspects.

pupil-teacher planning A general phrase to denote cooperation in choosing materials and deciding upon procedures.

rating scale A graduated arrangement of qualities or levels in a sequence, designed to facilitate appraisal.

reliability That quality of a test which results in consistency of performance.

resource unit A full and inclusive collection of materials from which those suited to a particular class can be readily abstracted; same as teacher unit.

selection Process of and result of choosing contents of a curriculum.

self-evaluation One's estimate of himself; used loosely to denote appraisal of an individual in terms of his previous status.

sequence Arrangement of entities in a predetermined order for the purpose of facilitating teaching and learning.

social Pertaining to societal rather than individual welfare.

social education A program designed to develop competence in human relationships. More inclusive than social studies, with which it is sometimes confused.

social heritage The sum total of man's achievements as distinguished from nature's gifts. That which is transmitted to on-

coming generations. Regarded as a reservoir of curricular materials.

social lag The gap between knowledge and practice. The interval between an invention or discovery and its acceptance and practice.

social relationships The network of interactions between and among individuals, groups, and institutions.

social sciences Those advanced branches of knowledge which deal with human relationships. Nearly always plural, since there is as yet no recognized or accepted composite.

social studies That field of materials dealing with human relationships which are used for instructional purposes.

socialized recitation Class procedure in which students take a leading part.

sociodrama Unwritten, unmemorized, and only generally prepared dramatization designed to promote understanding of persons dramatized or insight into situations enacted.

sociometry Measurement of the interrelations among members of a group or class; portrayed in charts and diagrams.

source That which supplies answers or materials to assist in the learning process. An inclusive concept used to designate sensory aids, invited speakers, and community resources, as well as printed materials.

study guide Printed or formally prepared directions for students in carrying out assignments or undertakings; sometimes refers to workbooks. Similar to guide sheets.

study skills Those abilities which enable a student to locate and utilize materials expeditiously.

subject Formally organized branch of knowledge; also a form of organized curricular content.

subjective test See *essay test*.

synthesis An interweaving of separate elements. Applies to materials and to the mental process of integrating.

teaching aid Anything used to promote teaching; often refers to apparatus at ends of chapter designed to facilitate study.

teacher-pupil planning A procedure for evoking the contributions of pupils, both for their value and for its motivating effect upon the pupils.

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technique A specific and practical step, procedure, or means for achieving a result. Less inclusive than method.

theme A topic, principle, or criterion for selecting the content for a unit or grade. Similar to process, area, and concept.

topic Collection of related material pertaining to a portion or segment of a larger body of materials; regarded as inert but logical.

transfer of training Carry-over value from one task, topic, or subject to another; transfer is effected through generalizations, identity of purpose, language, or identity of content or method.

trend A current development tending toward wide acceptance. Loosely regarded as synonymous with educational progress.

true-false Test form in which testee is asked to pass upon the accuracy of a statement. Generally regarded as unsuited to the social studies.

type study A subject chosen for study because it is regarded as typical or illustrative of a kind or class.

unification The thorough and complete merging of diverse or separated elements into one new synthesis.

unit Form of organization that calls for the selection of relevant materials; organization of materials designed for instructional purposes.

unit method A five-step teaching procedure, consisting of exploration, presentation, assimilation, organization, and recitation.

validity That quality of a test that insures that it measures what it purports to measure.

verbalism Use of a word without understanding its meaning.

vertical integration Arrangement of contents of social studies so as to constitute an orderly progression as the pupil goes from one grade to the next. Similar to grading.

widening horizons A plan for grading social studies materials on the basis of the child's expanding experiences. Applied to social relationships as well as to geographic materials.

workbook Formally prepared study guide containing a variety of exercises and activities designed to improve reading and promote studying.

world affairs Study of contemporary developments; similar to current events but usually regarded as more inclusive.

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